

PUBLIC SCHOOL
GRAMMAR

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THE
PUBLIC SCHOOL
GRAMMAR.

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PREFACE.

IN preparing this book the author has tried to keep four objects in view:—

1. To make it full enough to meet all the requirements of the Public School course.

2. To keep it in line with the High School grammar so that pupils entering the High Schools and Collegiate Institutes will have nothing to unlearn.

3. To improve the teaching of grammar in the Public Schools, and to ensure, on the part of the pupils, an intelligent and definite knowledge of the subject as far as they go in their study of it.

4. To make the study of grammar promote as directly and efficiently as possible the art of speaking and writing the English language correctly.

How far he has succeeded in these objects remains to be seen, but the favorable opinions expressed by several experienced Inspectors and Principals of Public Schools, who were kind enough to read the proofs, and to give him the benefit of their criticisms and suggestions, encourage him to hope that the book will be found to be an improvement on any hitherto used in the Public Schools.

In order to allow sufficient space for Syntax and Analysis, and for carefully prepared Review Exercises, it has been necessary to make the explanations as brief as is consistent with clearness. A definite mode of treating each part of the subject is given, and it is left with the teacher to furnish such further explanations and illustrations as may be necessary.

Only a few formal definitions have been given. It is difficult to frame grammatical definitions which are at once simple and accurate. It is much more important that pupils should be trained to recognize and distinguish the different classes and uses of words, etc., than that they should be able to repeat formal definitions of the terms employed. Young teachers will do well to remember that in grammar, of all subjects, the ability to repeat numerous definitions correctly furnishes little, if any, evidence that a pupil has a real grasp of the subject.

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ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

PART I.

THE SENTENCE AND ITS PARTS.

1. When a child begins to speak it uses at first only single words, which are generally the names of persons or things that it sees or wants; as *mamma, papa, sugar, drink*. From hearing these words often used by its parents or others around it, it has learned to connect the word with the person or thing, and the word, therefore, stands for a notion or idea in its mind. As it grows older it gradually learns to put words together in groups to express its wishes, feelings, and thoughts.

2. Language, whether spoken or written, is made up of such groups, of different kinds and lengths. These groups are called **Sentences**, and, when properly written, each begins with a capital and ends with a period or other full stop.

3. Grammar is the study of words as parts of sentences, and deals with their uses, forms, and relations.

4. Language existed before grammar, and does not depend on it. Grammar, therefore, does not make the facts and laws of language; it merely seeks to find out these from the usage of the best writers and speakers, and to state them in a clear and orderly way.

Although a person may learn to speak and to write English correctly without studying grammar, yet a knowledge of it will help him to understand the nature and structure of language, and to correct or avoid wrong forms of expression that he may have learned, or that he may hear or meet with.

5. If we take the following sentences :

1. Ice melts. 2. Mary went home at recess. 3. One of the ropes broke. 4. Three little boys were playing in the yard. 5. How quickly our holidays have passed!

we see that in each the thought takes the form of a statement or assertion about somebody or something.

Again, if we take the following :

1. Who did that? 2. How many pupils have seen one? 3. Was Henry at school to-day? 4. Why don't you answer my question? 5. Has the bell rung yet?

we see that in each a question is asked.

Lastly, if we take the following :

1. Close your books. 2. Don't say a word about it. 3. Let me look at it. 4. Thy will be done. 5. God save the Queen.

we see that in each there is a command or request addressed to some one, or else a wish expressed in regard to somebody or something.

6. Now, as every sentence will be found to do one of these three things, that is, (1) to assert something, (2) to ask a question, or (3) to express a command, request, or wish, we may say that

(1). *A sentence is a thought expressed in words.*

(2). Sentences may be divided according to the form of the thought into three classes, namely,

(a). **Assertive** Sentences, those in which an assertion is made.

(b). **Interrogative** Sentences, those in which a question is asked.

(c). **Imperative** Sentences, those which express a command, request, or wish.

Some grammarians make a fourth class, which they call **Exclamatory**. Exclamations, however, when fully expressed in the form of sentences, are either assertions, questions, or commands, requests, or wishes, and do not, therefore, really form a distinct class of sentences.

Of these three classes *Assertive* are the commonest, and also the most regular in form, and, therefore, we shall generally use them as examples.

7. We must be careful to notice that not every group of properly arranged words is a sentence.

Thus, if we take the following groups:

1. The capture of Quebec. 2. An adventure with a bear. 3. Making maple sugar. 4. Waiting to hear the result. 5. His mother's last words. 6. The people living in the house.

we see that, although the words are properly arranged in each group and make sense as far as they go, in no case do they express a complete thought. Therefore, unless a group of words really expresses a thought in one of the three forms that we have mentioned it is not regarded in grammar as a sentence.

EXERCISE I.

I. Which of the following groups of words are sentences, and which are not?

1. Bring me your book. 2. Sitting by the window. 3. His brother works in the mill. 4. What have you done with it? 5. The conquest of Bengal. 6. To play another game. 7. This room is not large enough. 8. Listen to the music. 9. Tom's choice. 10. None of us knew his name. 11. Were any of the family at church? 12. What a heavy rain we had this morning! 13. Coming home from school. 14. In which house does he live? 15. Thy Kingdom come. 16. How pretty these flowers look!

II. Classify the sentences in I. according to form.

III. Write three Assertive, three Interrogative, and three Imperative sentences.

SUBJECT AND PREDICATE.

8. In the sentence,

His brother works in the mill,

the part "his brother" shows whom we are speaking of, while the part "works in the mill" tells what is asserted of him.

Similarly, if we take a number of the other Assertive sentences that we have used and arrange them thus,

	Ice	melts.
	Mary	went home at recess.
One of the ropes	broke.	
This room	will not be large enough.	

we see that the part to the left of the line in each sentence tells us who or what is spoken of, while the part to the right tells us what is asserted of the person or thing.

It is plain, therefore, that every Assertive sentence can be divided into two parts. Of these the one names or represents the person or thing spoken of, and is called the **Subject**; the other tells what is asserted of that person or thing, and is called the **Predicate**.

EXERCISE II.

I. Divide each of the following sentences into subject and predicate :

1. A soft answer turneth away wrath. 2. He left the book on the table. 3. The children had gone to bed. 4. One of the prisoners escaped. 5. Several of the trees were blown down by the storm. 6. Longfellow wrote many beautiful poems. 7. The moon was shining through the trees. 8. These early apples will soon be ripe. 9. I haven't time to finish it. 10. Nearly all the boys in the class passed.

II. Write five assertive sentences, and then divide each into subject and predicate.

9. In the examples of assertive sentences that have been used so far, the subject comes before the predicate. It often happens, however, that a part of the predicate is placed before the subject, and sometimes, the whole predicate comes first.

Thus, if we take the following sentences :

1. In the morning his father sent for the doctor. 2. Down came the rain in a perfect torrent. 3. At the foot of the hill stands a little cottage.

we see that to divide them into subject and predicate we shall have to arrange them as follows :

His father	sent for the doctor in the morning.
The rain	came down in a perfect torrent.
A little cottage	stands at the foot of the hill.

10. Before attempting to divide a sentence, therefore, into subject and predicate we must make sure that we understand the meaning of it, and we must, if necessary, rearrange the parts. The best way to do this is to select the word that has most to do with making the assertion and place it in the predicate; then by putting *who* or *what* before it and asking a question we shall find that the answer gives us the subject or the chief word in it. Having now the foundation of the sentence we can soon arrange the rest of the words in their proper places in the subject or the predicate, as the sense requires.

Thus, if we take the sentence,

All day long through Frederick Street
Sounded the tread of marching feet ;

and ask such questions as,

1. What word in these two lines makes an assertion? 2. What sounded? 3. What tread? 4. Sounded when? 5. Sounded where?

we shall see that the sentence, when divided into subject and predicate, will stand thus,

The tread of marching feet | sounded all day long through
Frederick Street.

EXERCISE III.

Divide each of the following sentences into subject and predicate :

1. Next day his employer spoke to him about it. 2. In front of the house is a fine orchard. 3. Here comes the master. 4. In that gloomy cavern a pious hermit once lived. 5. Never shall I forget that sad scene. 6. After a short delay they resumed their journey. 7. To every man upon this earth death cometh soon or late.

8. At the door, one summer evening,
Sat the little Hiawatha.

9. For us the raftsmen down the stream
Their island barges steer.

10. Then to battle fierce came forth
All the might of Denmark's crown.

11. We shall find on examination, that Interrogative and Imperative sentences may also be divided into subject and predicate, although in order to do so it will generally be necessary to re-arrange the words somewhat.

Thus, if we take the following sentences,

(a). How many boys have read the story? Was your brother at school to-day? Which house do they live in?

(b). Don't you touch that ball. Lead thou me on. Long may our good queen reign over us.

we shall see that if we arrange them thus,

How many boys		have read the story?
Your brother		was at school to-day.
They		live in which house?
You		don't touch that ball.
Thou		lead me on.
Our good queen		may long reign over us.

the part to the left, as before, represents the person or thing spoken of or spoken to, and is, therefore, the subject,

while the part to the right contains the words used to express the question, command request, or wish, and is, therefore, the predicate.

12. In imperative sentences expressing a command or a request the person, being directly addressed, does not require to be mentioned, and, therefore, the subject is commonly omitted; as,

Make known thy will unto us. Bring me your books.

In such cases, therefore, it will be necessary to supply *thou* or *you* as the subject in order to make the usual division of the sentence into subject and predicate.

EXERCISE IV.

I. Divide each of the following interrogative and imperative sentences into subject and predicate:

1. How many fish did you catch? 2. Draw your chair nearer the fire. 3. Is your father at home? 4. What were these little boys quarrelling about? 5. Don't forget to shut the gate. 6. Where did he find it? 7. Have any of you seen my cap? 8. Do keep quiet. 9. Which of these boys broke the window? 10. Be careful to do so.

II. Write three interrogative and three imperative sentences, and then divide each into subject and predicate.

13. We have been speaking so far as if a sentence always consisted of a group of words which can be divided into subject and predicate. We shall find, however, that thoughts are sometimes expressed, especially in conversation, by single words, or by groups which cannot, as they stand, be divided into subject and predicate. Thus, we hear or read questions, answers, commands, requests, and exclamations such as the following:

1. When? 2. To whom? 3. Certainly. 4. This morning. 5. This way! 6. Silence! 7. How stupid! 8. What a pity!

In nearly all such cases, however, it is easy to supply suitable words so that when the thought is fully expressed the sentence can, as in other cases, be divided into subject and predicate; as

1. When did it happen? 2. To whom did you give it? 3. I will certainly do so. 4. He died this morning. 5. Keep you silence. 6. Come you this way. 7. How stupid that was. 8. What a pity it is!

Therefore, we still say that a sentence, in the sense in which the word is used in grammar, is a thought *fully*

expressed in words, and that every sentence **can** be divided into a subject and a predicate; and if we are asked to **analyze** a sentence, that is, to break it up into the parts of which the thought is composed, we may supply, if necessary, suitable words to express the thought fully.

EXERCISE V.

I. Supply whatever words are necessary to express the thought fully in each of the following examples; then divide each sentence into subject and predicate.

1. In a few minutes. 2. At what time? 3. Not at all. 4. Hands off! 5. How soon? 6. Perhaps. 7. Attention! 8. Why so? 9. Nonsense. 10. Not for the world. 11. Louder! 12. Blessings on his head!

II. Classify each sentence as assertive, interrogative or imperative.

THE PARTS OF SPEECH.

14. So far we have been dealing with sentences and the two parts into which each may be divided. If now we turn our attention to the words of which these sentences are composed we shall find that they, like sentences, are of different kinds, and that they may be divided into classes according to the use that we make of them in sentences.

Now, as language, or speech, is made up of sentences, and as sentences are made up of words connected in thought, words may be regarded as parts of speech; and, accordingly, the different classes into which they are divided are commonly spoken of in grammar as the different **parts of speech**.

When, therefore, we speak of a word as being a certain Part of Speech, we mean nothing more than that it belongs to a class of words which get a certain name from the way in which we use them in sentences.

NOUNS.

15. We stated at the outset that the first words that a child learns are usually the names of persons and things that it sees or wants. We have seen, too, that in the sentences which we have taken as examples since we began, there are many names of persons, places and things; as *Mary*, *Longfellow*, *Quebec*, *father*, *moon*, *rain*, *cottage*.

Such words are in grammar called **Nouns**, a word that

means *names*, and we shall, therefore, take nouns for the first Part of Speech.

16. Sometimes a name consists of two or three words; as *Oliver Cromwell*, *Sir Isaac Brock*, *New York*, *Prince Edward Island*, *governor-general*, *son-in-law*. In such cases we regard the whole name as one noun.

It must be understood that under the head of *things* we include actions, qualities, conditions and feelings, so that words which are used as names of these are also classed as nouns; as *skating*, *wisdom*, *poverty*, *anxiety*.

We may, therefore, define a noun as follows:

A noun is a word used as the name of anything about which we can express a thought.

EXERCISE VI.

I. Write the names of the months and of the days of the week, and give a proper contraction for each.

II. Write two names each of boys, girls, countries, cities, authors, books, poems.

III. Write two names each of actions, qualities, conditions, feelings.

IV. Write two names each of trees, flowers, fruits, vegetables, and minerals.

V. Select all the nouns in the following sentences:

1. My sister spent her vacation in Toronto with her cousins. 2. At the last meeting of the society the following officers were elected for next term. 3. Several towns on the Grand River suffered severe losses. 4. The bursting of the dam caused great damage to my uncle's property. 5. Pay attention to the advice of your parents. 6. A group of weary pilgrims had gathered under the shade of its branches. 7. The fate of the prisoners depended on his decision. 8. The city stands on the slope of a lofty eminence on the left bank of the St. Lawrence. 9. A company of Highlanders, under Captain McDonald, were the first soldiers that reached the shore. 10. Without a moment's hesitation they began to scramble up the face of the cliff.

VERBS.

17. We have already seen (8) that the predicate in the assertive sentence may consist of a single word, as "*Ice melts*"; and that where it consists of a number of words there is always one that has more to do with making the assertion than the rest have, one without which there would, in fact, be no assertion; as

The teacher soon *learned* the names of the pupils;
In the evening they often *go* for a row on the river.

In the same way we should find, if we were to examine the other classes of sentences, that in each of them there is always one word in the predicate which is of more importance than the rest, and without which there would be no complete thought expressed.

We shall take, therefore, for the second Part of Speech a class of words which are used to make assertions, or which are used alone or along with other words to form the predicate of sentences. Such words are known in grammar as **Verbs**, the name *Verb*, which means "the word," having been given to them because the verb is the most important word in the sentence, since there can be no sentence in the grammatical sense without a verb in it.

A verb may be defined, then, as follows:

A verb is a word by means of which we make an assertion, and hence which stands alone or with other words as a predicate.

18. We saw that two or three words are sometimes taken together to form one noun. In the same way, but more frequently, we take two, three, or even more words together and regard them as forming one verb. Thus, in the following sentences:

1. She *has been* ill for a long time. 2. The boys *had taken* it without them. 3. One of us *will call* for you. 4. The glass *was broken* by the blow. 5. The judges *would have given* him another trial.

the italicized parts are usually taken together and regarded as the verbs of their sentences.

It will be found, too, that these parts are sometimes separated by words coming between; as

1. He *has often done* that. 2. The teacher *had never seen* the boy before. 3. *Will* this room *be large enough*? 4. The dog *would easily have caught* it. *Was anyone hurt* by it?

EXERCISE VII.

I. Select the verbs and then the nouns from the following sentences:

1. In the afternoon all the pupils were in their usual places. 2. Jane's mother had sent her to the office with a letter. 3. These people have lived in the house all winter. 4. A liberal reward will be given to the finder. 5. The secretary will write the names of the candidates on the blackboard. 6. Nova Scotia is one of the Provinces of the Dominion. 7. A heavy mist hung over the valley. 8. Two

steamboats were seen in the distance. 9. The owner of the mill was not at home. 10. No new books have been put in the library for some time.

II. Divide each sentence in I. into subject and predicate.

III. Write ten sentences, using the following as the verbs:

Are, gives, went, will see, have written, learn, had played, was made, would have gone, said.

DIFFERENT USES OF THE SAME WORDS.

19. We stated (14) that the classification of words as parts of speech depends on the use that is made of them in sentences. Many words, however, do not always perform the same duty in sentences, and, therefore, are not always the same part of speech. Thus in the sentence,

The driver dropped his *whip*,

the word *whip* is plainly the name of something, and is, therefore, a noun. On the other hand in the sentence,

These men *whip* their horses cruelly,

it is equally plain that *whip* is the word that makes the assertion, and is, therefore, a verb.

It is evident, then, that the only safe rule to follow in classifying words as parts of speech is to observe carefully in each case how the word is used, and to place it in one class or another accordingly.

EXERCISE VIII.

I. Tell whether the italicized words are nouns or verbs, and give your reason in each case:

1. He usually *plants* them in a shady place. 2. We *place* our plants in the window. 3. The men *work* very hard. 4. They do their *work* well. 5. He made three *runs* in that game. 6. These plants *flower* in the spring. 7. *Iron* these clothes carefully. 8. We had a very pleasant *ride*. 9. The house *faces* the lake. 10. *Light* the lamps.

II. Write sentences using the following words first as nouns, then as verbs: *milk, watch, mark, bite, drink, knock, play, row, cover, judge.*

PRONOUNS.

20. We have now learned the uses and the names of two parts of speech, namely, nouns and verbs, and we have seen that we can make sentences consisting merely of these two; as,

Birds fly. Accidents have happened.
Prizes were offered. Cats will catch mice.

Most sentences, however, contain other kinds of words, also, and we shall, therefore, go on to consider these.

When we are speaking of some person or thing we do not keep repeating the name, but we use certain little words in place of it.

Thus, instead of writing,

John's mother gave *John* a new knife, but *John* lost the *knife* on *John's* way to school, and when *John* found the *knife* again, the *knife's* blade was broken.

we prefer to say

John's mother gave *him* a new knife, but *he* lost *it* on *his* way to school, and when *he* found *it* again *its* blade was broken.

21. Often, too, when we do not know the names of persons or things, or for some reason do not wish to use them, we employ in place of them certain words which, without naming, show who or what is meant.

Thus I may stop a man on the street, and, pointing to some object, I may say,

Can you tell me what that is?

using the italicized words as substitutes for names, to show who or what is meant.

These little words, then, *he*, *his*, *him*, *it*, *its*, *you*, *me*, *what*, *that*, and others, which are used either to prevent the repetition of nouns already mentioned, or to show who or what is meant without giving the name, form another part of speech, and are known in grammar as **Pronouns**, that is, words used "for nouns."

A pronoun may be defined, then, as follows:

A pronoun is a word which represents a thing without naming it.

EXERCISE IX.

I. Substitute pronouns for nouns wherever you can in the following sentences:

1. When Mary saw that the little girl had no lunch Mary offered the girl the half of Mary's. 2. Harry said to Harry's mother "May Harry take Jack's cap, for somebody has taken Harry's?" 3. The boys caught a squirrel, but when the boys got home the boys' mother persuaded the boys to let the squirrel go. 4. Tom said to Will, "Will and Tom are ready, let Will and Tom go." 5. George fell from the ladder and hurt George.

II. Select from the following sentences any words that seem to you to be pronouns, either because they stand for nouns already used in the sentence, or because they show without naming who or what is meant:

1. If these candidates fail they have only themselves to blame. 2. Gather these up and put them on the table. 3. The girl was admiring herself. 4. I will not agree to that unless you give me first choice. 5. This is cracked, hand me another. 6. Some were absent. 7. Each got a different answer. 8. Who said so? 9. Which do the girls like best? 10. What does the man want?

III. Make as far as you can three lists of pronouns:

1. Those used in speaking of ourselves.
2. Those used in speaking to others.
3. Those used in speaking of other persons and things.

22. From what we have already learned about pronouns we see that they are really a sort of general names, which may represent a great variety of objects and which depend for their particular meaning on the connection in which they are used. Thus, while each of the following: *dog, bird, fish, tree, house, bread*, brings before the mind a more or less definite notion or mental picture, the word *it*, which of itself has no meaning and calls up no picture whatever, can be used as a substitute for any of these six nouns, or for hundreds of others. Accordingly, while there is no limit to the number of nouns that we may have, a very small number of pronouns serves our purpose. These, however, are in constant use, so that, although pronouns are spoken of as substitutes for nouns, we could not really get on without them.

EXERCISE X.

Select and arrange in separate lists all the nouns, verbs, and pronouns you can find in the following:

A farmer set a trap in the field for the cranes which were stealing his corn. Next day he found in it several cranes and a stork. "Spare me," cried the stork, "I am not a crane, I have not eaten any of your corn." "That may be true," replied the farmer, "but this I know, I caught you in my field with thieves, and you must suffer with them."

THE BARE SUBJECT.

23. We have seen that we can easily form sentences consisting merely of nouns and verbs. Now, as pronouns are used in place of nouns we can with equal ease form sentences of pronouns and verbs; as

They run. He has fallen. She will return. You might have been killed. I met them. It had seen us.

If, now, we look at a number of sentences in which the subject consists of a group of words, we shall see that there is nearly always one which particularly expresses the person or thing spoken of.

Thus in the sentences :

The *father* of these little girls lives in Buffalo. The *scholars* in the front row have the best chance. *Those* with cracks in them are of no use. *Each* of the pupils got a different answer.

we see that if we put *who* or *what* before each verb in turn and ask a question, as "Who lives?" the italicized word gives the particular answer in each case, and is, therefore, the most important word in the subject.

Such words then are spoken of in analysis as forming the **Bare Subject**, as distinguished from the whole or **Complete Subject**.

EXERCISE XI.

I. Divide each of the following sentences into subject and predicate, and underline the bare subject and the verb.

II. Make out separate lists of the nouns and pronouns in these sentences :

1. The poor creature hid itself in a corner. 2. Our visit to the city passed very quickly. 3. Several of his friends gave him the same advice. 4. Another case of fever was reported to us. 5. Some of the boxes had been left at the station. 6. That little girl offered him hers. 7. The rules of the society do not allow that. 8. The whole family have gone to the seaside. 9. Do any of them live in the village? 10. Another of the members made the same mistake.

ADJECTIVES.

24. Although we can make numerous sentences consisting merely of nouns or pronouns and verbs, most of the sentences that we meet with contain other words also.

For instance, if we select all the nouns, pronouns, and verbs from the following sentences :

1. He has *early* hair. 2. Boys like *ripe* apples. 3. Give her *this* book. 4. Who owns *your* house? 5. John answered *five* questions. 6. She made *many* mistakes.

we see that the italicized words are left.

If now, following our rule, we ask what these words do, we see that they are all used with nouns, and that they limit the application of these nouns in some way. Thus in

the first two sentences the italicized words describe the kind or quality of the things spoken of; in the third and fourth they point out particular objects, and in the last two they tell the number of things spoken of.

We shall take, therefore, for our next Part of Speech words whose special function or use is to limit the application of nouns by describing or distinguishing in some other way the thing named. Such words are in grammar called **Adjectives**, a word meaning "added to" or "placed beside"; and from the way in which they are used with nouns they are said to **modify** nouns.

The word *modify*, as commonly used, means to make some change in a thing. As used in grammar it means to change the meaning or application of a word by adding to it some other descriptive or limiting word. Thus, if we take the sentence, "Boys like apples," and write it, "Boys like ripe apples," or "These boys like apples," we see that we change the meaning by restricting the statement in the one case to certain apples, and in the other to certain boys; and that this change is made in each case by adding an adjective to a noun. The adjective really, therefore, *modifies the statement*, but, as it does this by limiting in some way the application of the noun, it is said to *modify the noun*.

The use of adjectives, which will be found to be a very numerous class of words, is due to the fact that things of the same name may differ from one another in so many respects, that we find it necessary to use with the noun words that will distinguish in some way the particular objects that we are speaking of.

An adjective may therefore be defined as follows:

An adjective is a word which modifies a noun by describing or distinguishing in some other way the thing spoken of.

EXERCISE XII.

I. Select the adjectives in the following sentences, and tell what noun each modifies:

1. That careless boy made a big blot on the clean page. 2. In yonder cottage lives a poor, blind man. 3. The old sailor told us a long story of wonderful adventures. 4. These boys have lost another good chance. 5. Read the tenth verse of the last chapter. 6. Few men have shown such perseverance. 7. The British fleet anchored in a Chinese port. 8. She gathered some fresh flowers. 9. Each pupil will have another trial. 10. Several new houses have been built on that street.

II. Write sentences using the following words as adjectives :

Tall, sour, strange, all, pretty, warm, both, Canadian, no, every.

III. Write sentences using the following nouns, with an adjective limiting each :

Bird, grass, clouds, river, dog, soldier, clothes, fire, water, box.

IV. Divide the sentences in I. into subject and predicate, and underline the bare subject and the verb.

25. In all the examples that we have taken so far the adjectives come before the nouns which they modify, in whatever part of the sentence the latter are found. Adjectives used in this way are said to be used **attributively**, or are called **Attributive Adjectives**.

If, however, we take sentences like the following :

The milk is *sour*. The children looked *happy*. The apples will soon get *ripe*. The weather grew *cold*.

we see that while the italicized words form part of the predicate in each case they are used to describe the things represented by the Bare Subjects, and are, therefore, adjectives, modifying these subjects. Adjectives used in this way are said to be used **predicatively**, or are called **Predicate Adjectives**.

The same adjective may, of course, be used either attributively or predicatively. Thus these four adjectives which we have just used predicatively are attributive in the following examples :

She uses *sour* milk. They are *happy* children. *Ripe* apples will not hurt you. *Cold* weather keeps them back.

26. Observe that adjectives may be used predicatively but not attributively with pronouns. Thus, we say

She was *angry*. They grew *anxious*. That is *unfair*.

though we cannot speak of "angry she," "anxious they."

27. The same verbs, such as *is, are, was, seem, prove, become*, that are followed by predicate adjectives modifying the subject may also be followed by **predicate nouns**, meaning *the same person or thing as the subject*; as,

He is *secretary*. They are *farmers*. He seems a nice *fellow*. The pond became a *lake*.

28. As verbs of this sort cannot ordinarily be used alone to form predicates, but require a noun or an adjective to

complete the assertion, they are often called **Verbs of Incomplete Predication**.

EXERCISE XIII.

I. Which of the adjectives in the following sentences are used attributively and which predicatively?

The water in these deep pools is always cold. 2. The poor mother turned pale at the dreadful news. 3. The old man was blind. 4. The blind man was old. 5. The weather had been damp all week. 6. On the wide lawn the snow lay white and deep. 7. We all felt sorry.

II. Write sentences using the following adjectives attributively, then predicatively:

Tall, pretty, strong, clear, different, comfortable.

III. Write sentences using the following as predicate nouns meaning the same person or thing as the subject:

Scholar, river, doctor, answer, city, island.

29. A few words, such as *this, these, that, those, each, another, all, some, both, either*, are used sometimes as adjectives, *with* nouns, and sometimes as pronouns, *for* nouns. Thus we have,

Adjectives: *This* answer is wrong. *Some* snow had fallen. *Either* road will take you there.

Pronouns: *This* belongs to me. *Some* were absent. *Either* will do.

30. A few other words, such as *my, our, his, their*, seem to be both pronouns and adjectives at the same time. Thus in the sentence,

Tom has lost *his* knife,

his is a pronoun in so far as it stands for *Tom*, and an adjective in the sense that it modifies the noun *knife* by distinguishing the thing named.

Hence, while it is proper enough to consider these words as pronouns, they are usually classed as **Pronominal Adjectives**.

31. We shall also see that many words may be readily used either as adjectives or as nouns, and some as adjectives, nouns, or verbs. Thus we have,

Adjectives: It was a *wet* day. That was a *wrong* step.

Nouns: Keep out of the *wet*. He did me a *wrong*.

Verbs: He *wet* the cloth. You *wrong* the others.

EXERCISE XIV.

I. What part of speech is each italicized word?

1. This plate is not *clean*, take it away and *clean* it. 2. He built a *stone* house. 3. Boys *stone* squirrels. 4. We *warm* ourselves at the

fire 5. It stands on a *level* with the rest 6. *Clear* these papers off the table. 7. You have no *right* to it. 8. He wore a *linen* coat. 9. They *idle* their time away. 10. He was shivering with *cold*.

II. Write sentences using the following first as adjectives, then as pronouns: *Those, any, each, both, another*.

III. Write sentences using the following as adjectives, and then as nouns: *Hollow, plain, fat, dark, silver*.

IV. Write sentences using the following as adjectives, and then as verbs: *Open, sound, separate, dry, free*.

ADVERBS.

32. If now we examine the following sentences:

(a). He spoke *distinctly*. The girls have done it *carefully*.

(b). The cars stop *here*. We looked *everywhere*.

(c). They will return *soon*. That happened *lately*.

we see that the predicate in each sentence contains a word that cannot be classed under any of the four parts of speech yet mentioned.

If then, as usual, we ask how these words are used, we see that just as adjectives modify nouns, so these words *modify verbs*, that is, they limit in some way the statement which the verbs make.

Thus, in (a) they modify the statement by telling *how*, in (b) by telling *where*, and in (c) by telling *when*.

Words used in this way, then, form another part of speech, and are known as **Adverbs**, from their being used with verbs.

33. Adverbs, however, do not always follow the verbs which they modify. Thus, if we take the sentences:

He *often* does that. I have *never* seen the house. *Lately* another instance of it occurred. *Presently* he walked *quietly* away.

we see that adverbs may stand before the verb, between the parts of a verb, and at the beginning of the sentence; and also that several adverbs may modify the same verb.

EXERCISE XV.

I. Select the adverbs, and tell what each modifies:

1. He answered all the questions *correctly*. 2. The family live in Toronto *now*. 3. Have you ever been in Montreal? 4. We called there *recently*. 5. That *frequently* happens. 6. The sun was sinking *slowly* in the west. 7. She walked *quietly* forward. 8. Well do I remember that day. 9. Speak *kindly* to the children. 10. Lay the parcel down *gently*. 11. Hereafter the rules will be *strictly* enforced.

II. Write sentences using the following as adverbs :

Always, quickly, then, easily, back, sometimes.

34. We have seen that adverbs modify verbs by adding to the statement some limitation as to manner, place, or time. A few, however, are used for other purposes. Thus in the sentences :

(a). He *just* touched me. They *almost* succeeded.

(b). He *certainly* thought so. You will *likely* meet them. The boys had *not* finished the game.

the italicized words are used to tell in (a) how far something was true, in (b) how far we believe a thing to be true, and, therefore, as they modify the statements made by the verbs, we class them as adverbs.

35. If now we examine the sentences of the following groups :

(a). He was *very* careful. The meaning is *quite* plain.

(b). He did it *very* carefully. She spoke *quite* plainly.

we see that the italicized words are used in (a) with adjectives, and in (b) with adverbs, to limit or modify their meaning by telling *how* or *how far*. It is plain, therefore, that some adverbs may modify adjectives and adverbs. The number of such adverbs is, however, small.

An adverb may be defined, therefore, as follows :

An adverb is a word which modifies a verb, an adjective, or another adverb.

36. We may notice here, too, that some words may be readily used either as adjectives or as adverbs ; as,

Adjectives : He owns a *fast* horse. That is *hard* work.

Adverbs : The time passes *fast*. They work *hard*.

EXERCISE XVI.

I. Write sentences using the following first as adverbs and then as adjectives : *Daily, better, straight, first, only.*

II. Select the adverbs, and tell what each modifies :

1. The river rose very rapidly. 2. He walked too fast. 3. It was an exceedingly warm day. 4. She bore it patiently. 5. The cistern was nearly full. 6. We never saw it again. 7. He has probably forgotten. 8. I sent it back twice. 9. The cord is not strong enough. 10. She feels less anxious now. 11. How soon will you **start** ?

PHRASES.

37. We have seen that two, or three, or even more words are sometimes taken together, treated as one part of speech, and spoken of as a noun or a verb.

Now, having learned the chief uses of adjectives and adverbs, we may notice that there are very many groups of connected words which, though not treated as one part of speech, have really the value of adjectives or adverbs.

Thus, if we examine the following sentences :

(a). No men of *wealth* were present. That was an answer *without thought*. Resistance *by force* is not allowed.

(b). He bore it *with patience*. We thought so *at that time*. I left it *in this place*.

we see that the italicized groups might be replaced in (a) by adjectives: as, *wealthy*, *thoughtless*, *forcible*; and in (b) by adverbs; as, *patiently*, *then*, *here*.

38. Even where we cannot put a single word in place of the groups we can, in most cases, readily see that if we could do so the word so substituted would be an adjective or an adverb.

Thus, if we take the following sentences:

(a). He showed me a letter *from his brother*. The boy *behind you* is talking. The prize *for good conduct* was not awarded.

(b). They were sitting *under the tree*. We shall start *after dinner*. He went there *against my wish*.

we see that the groups in (a) serve to describe or distinguish the things spoken of, and are, therefore, **equivalent**, that is, *equal in value*, to adjectives; while those in (b) modify or limit the statements made by the verbs, and are, therefore, equal in value to adverbs.

Such groups, then, are spoken of as **Adjective** or **Adverb Phrases**, and they are said to *modify* the nouns or verbs with which they are used.

39. Examples such as the following:

(a). Those *in the back seats* can't hear. Some *of the children* began to cry.

(b). They were glad *of an excuse*. He was careful *of the papers*.

show us that adjective phrases may be used with some pronouns, and adverb phrases with some adjectives.

We find also, as we might expect, that the same phrase may sometimes have the value of an adjective, and sometimes that of an adverb, according to the use that is made of it.

Thus in the sentence,

The flowers *in the garden* were frozen,

it is plain that the italicized phrase modifies *flowers*, and is, therefore, adjectival, while in

The men were working *in the garden*,

it is equally plain that the phrase modifies *were working*, and is, therefore, adverbial.

EXERCISE XVII.

Select the adjective and the adverb phrases in the following, classify them, and tell what word each modifies:

1. He gave us an account of the match. 2. He waited for an hour.
3. She was at the head of the class. 4. He stood between the two posts. 5. Do you know the road to the wharf? 6. This road leads to the wharf. 7. Hang it over the door. 8. It rained heavily before breakfast. 9. Which of these books is yours? 10. We shall wait at the corner.

II. Write sentences, using the following phrases, first as adjectives, then as adverbs:

In the house. On the table. To the city. From home. During the night.

PREPOSITIONS.

40. So far we have been dealing with each phrase as a whole. Let us now observe what kinds of words these phrases are composed of.

For instance, if we take the following sentences:

They started *on Monday*. We stood *at the corner*. John came *for us*. She sits *with me*. The winner *of the prize* was absent. This is the road *to the wharf*.

we find that the six italicized words which begin the phrases cannot be classed with any of the Parts of Speech that we have yet considered.

If, then, we ask our usual question, "What do these words do?" we see that they are used to join a noun or a pronoun to some other word in the sentence, and to show some relation between the notions expressed by the words that they join.

To make clearer what we mean by *showing a relation*, let us take an illustration. Suppose that we wish to connect the notions expressed by the words *put* and *desk*, in

He put it — the desk,

we may fill the blank with any one of the following words: *on, in, above, under, before, behind, beside*, which will serve to connect the two words, *put* and *desk*, and to show a relation of place between the notions they express.

So in the following case:

She told me that — recess,

we may use *at, before, or after* to connect the words *told* and *recess*, and to show a relation of time between the two notions.

Words used in this way, to connect other words and to show a relation between the notions which they express, are known in grammar as **Prepositions**, and they are usually placed before a noun or a pronoun.

41. The noun or pronoun that follows the preposition is spoken of as its **Object**, and is said to be governed by it. It is usual, too, to say that the preposition shows the relation between its object and the word with which it connects it, although, as we have seen, the relation is really between the notions expressed by the words.

A preposition may be defined as follows:

A preposition is a word which joins a noun or pronoun, called its object, to some other word, thus forming with its object an adjective or adverb phrase, modifying that other word.

EXERCISE XVIII.

I. Select the prepositions in the following sentences, tell the object of each, and what it connects it with:

1. The dog jumped over the fence. 2. Their mother will be anxious about them. 3. She hid it among the flowers. 4. The entrance to the park was closed. 5. The boys swam across the river. 6. The ground beneath our feet was trembling. 7. The travellers gazed upon the scene. 8. We shall wait for a few minutes. 9. The papers in the desk belong to me. 10. They fell on their faces.

II. Classify the phrases as adjectival or adverbial.

42. An examination of such sentences as the following:

He will call *at* the office *for* the parcel *in* the morning. *After* prayers they all went *to* their rooms. What were you thinking *of*? Whom were you talking *to*? Show me the house which they live *in*.

will show us that there may be several prepositions connecting different objects with the same verb; and that while the preposition usually comes between the words which it connects, it may begin the sentence, and may even, especially with some pronouns, come at the end of the sentence.

In every such case, however, we see that if we place the preposition before its object and next to the verb or other word with which it connects it, we shall have the proper sense; as,

Call for the parcel. Call in the morning. Went after prayers. Thinking of what? Talking to whom?

We must be very careful, therefore, when we are asked to classify phrases and to give their relation, that is to tell what word they modify or are connected with, not to be misled by their position, but to be guided entirely by the sense.

Thus in the line,

Now fades the glimmering landscape on the sight,
although the phrase "on the sight" stands beside the noun "landscape," the sense of the line is plainly this:

The glimmering landscape now fades on the sight,
and, therefore, the phrase is adverbial, modifying *fades*.

EXERCISE XIX.

I. Select the prepositions in the following, tell what words each connects, and classify the phrases as adjectival or adverbial:

1. I left two letters on the table for your mother. 2. The streets were crowded with people from the country. 3. One of them attracted the attention of the boys by its antics. 4. During the winter he worked in the mill. 5. Part of the track was swept away by the torrent. 6. He sent a boy to the shop for a saw. 7. I saw a notice of the accident in the paper. 8. For several years they received no letters from him. 9. Look on the floor under your desk. 10. Whom did you get it from?

II. Write sentences, using the following words as prepositions:

With, through, across, along, towards, around, by, among.

43. A few words, such as *off, on, up, down*, require careful notice, as they are used with equal freedom as prepositions or as adverbs, and it is only by the sense that we can tell which they are. For instance, if we take the sentences,

He jumped off the sleigh. He took off his coat.

the word *off* may seem at first sight to be used in the same way in each sentence. Bearing in mind, however, that adverbs merely modify, while prepositions connect, have an object dependent on them, and with that object form an adjective or adverb phrase, we see that in the first sentence *off* is a preposition, and in the second an adverb.

It will be noticed, too, that when an adverb modifies a verb we can usually drop it out of the sentence, or change its place without affecting the relation of the other words; while, as a rule, a preposition cannot be left out or moved from its place unless we take its object with it. Thus we cannot change the place of the *off* in the first sentence, while the second sentence may equally well be written "He took his coat off."

EXERCISE XX.

I. Say whether the italicized words are adverbs or prepositions. If adverbs, tell what they modify; if prepositions, tell what they connect:

1. Pick *up* these papers and lay them *on* the table. 2. Put *on* your cap and bring *in* some wood. 3. He threw *down* the paper and walked *off* the platform. 4. Time has brought *about* great changes. 5. I told the teacher *about* it. 6. He ran *down* the street and turned *round* the corner. 7. He nearly fell *over* the bridge. 8. She has turned *over* a new leaf. 9. Take *away* the dishes and draw *back* the curtains. 10. The snail drew *in* his horns. 11. Call *out* the names of those who are *behind* you. 12. *Within* the camp were traitors, *without* were armed foes. 13. Hold *up* your heads while we are marching *up* the street. 14. She was sitting *by* the window.

II. Write sentences, using the following words, first as prepositions, then as adverbs: *Before*, *round*, *across*, *since*, *along*.

PARTICIPLE AND INFINITIVE PHRASES.

44. Before going farther it may be well to notice that there are other phrases, which do not begin with prepositions, but which resemble the phrases with which we have been dealing, in this respect, that they are equal in value to a single part of speech.

When we come to Part II. we shall learn all the different forms of verbs, but in the meantime we may notice certain forms which are easily recognized, and which, though they cannot be used to form predicates, are very often used to begin phrases.

Thus, from the verbs *see* and *write* we have such forms as :

Seeing, having seen ; writing, having written ;

which are called **Participles**, and

To see, to have seen ; to write, to have written ;

which are called **Infinitives**.

What these names mean, and why they were given to these forms, will be explained hereafter. In the meantime we merely notice the fact that phrases beginning with participles and infinitives are very common, and that they are usually called **Participle** and **Infinitive Phrases**.

45. If, however, we look at the use of these phrases, as in the following sentences :

(a). The boys, *seeing the dog*, ran away. The clerk, *having written the letter*, handed it to me. I left them *writing their exercises*.

(b). He gave them a chance *to see it*. I had no time *to write a letter*.

(c). They all stood up *to see it*. He was anxious *to write a letter*.

we see that participial phrases are used, as in (a), with nouns or pronouns to describe some person or thing, and are, therefore, equivalent to adjectives; while infinitive phrases are used with nouns as adjectives, as in (b); or else, as in (c), to modify or limit verbs or adjectives, in which case they are equivalent to adverbs.

An examination of sentences like the following :

To see it would do you good. He offered *to write a letter*.

will show that infinitive phrases may also be used in the same way as a noun, since we might substitute the word *something* for either of the phrases.

EXERCISE XXI.

I. Select all the participial and infinitive phrases in the following, and tell whether they have the value of nouns, or of adjectives, or of adverbs :

1. They worked hard to finish it. 2. The men, having finished the work, went home. 3. The boys were eager to hear the news. 4. They all wanted to go home. 5. Fearing an attack, the soldiers remained in the camp. 6. To have done that would have kept us too long. 7. We shall be sorry to lose you. 8. His object was to deceive them. 9. He likes to watch them. 10. Are you ready to begin the game? 11. We watched the children gathering the flowers. 12. I came here to study my lessons.

ANALYSIS OF SIMPLE SENTENCES.

MODIFIERS OF THE SUBJECT.

46. We have now considered all the parts of speech that are usually found in **Simple Sentences**, that is, *sentences that have only one subject and one predicate*, and we have seen that the bare subject and the verb form the foundation of the sentence. We may now, before taking up the remaining parts of speech, carry our analysis of simple sentences a little further, and see what parts the subject and the predicate may be divided into, what relation these parts bear in the sentences, and what names are usually given to them.

Beginning again, then, with the subject, if we examine a number of sentences: as,

Several boys saw it. Mary's mother called to see her. Smith, the carpenter, bought it. Toys of all kinds were lying on the counter. Chances to do that seldom occur. Persons picking these flowers will be fined. Our neighbor's little boy, Willie, hearing the band, ran into the street.

we see that the bare subject may be modified by an adjective, a noun, or an adjective phrase, or by two or more of these combined. Such modifying words and phrases may be called **Modifiers of the Bare Subject**, and the analysis of a simple sentence may at this stage be set down thus,

“The chairman's closing appeal to the audience will probably have some effect.”

Bare Subject,	appeal.
Modifiers of B.S.,	{ (1) The chairman's, (2) closing,
	{ (3) to the audience.
Predicate,	will probably have some effect.

EXERCISE XXII.

I. Analyze the following sentences according to the plan just given.

1. These books on the desk belong to her. 2. Your friend, the doctor, evidently thinks so. 3. The best time to plant them is in the spring. 4. All the boys in our room study Latin. 5. His mother, hearing the noise, opened the door. 6. The King's youngest brother was plotting against him. 7. The people living in the house became

alarmed. 8. Your offer to buy it has been accepted. 9. William, Duke of Normandy, invaded England. 10. Knowing this, some of the boys stayed away from school.

II. Select all the adverbial phrases and tell what each modifies.

THE OBJECT AND ITS MODIFIERS.

47. Before dealing with the divisions of the Predicate we must say something more in regard to the different kinds of verbs.

We saw in speaking of adjectives that some verbs can hardly be used alone to form predicates (28) but require to be followed by a predicate adjective describing the person or thing represented by the subject, or by a predicate noun denoting the same person or thing: as,

The weather grew cold. The children seemed happy. His brother is a doctor. He became the proprietor.

We have now to notice that we have another class of verbs which can be used alone as predicates, but which are generally followed by a noun or pronoun representing the person or thing that is the object of the action expressed by the verb.

Thus in the following sentences:

The heat melted the *ice*. He struck *me*. The dogs chased the farmer's *sheep*. John broke the small *blade* of his knife.

we see that each verb expresses action of some kind, that the italicized noun or pronoun represents the person or thing directly affected by the act, or, in other words, the **Object** of the act, and that this object may be further described by other words or phrases attached to the noun or pronoun.

Although, of course, the act is done by a person or thing to another person or thing, and not by a word to a word, yet for the sake of shortness and convenience we speak of the noun or pronoun as being the *object of the verb*, when what we really mean is that the noun or pronoun represents the person or thing that is the object on which the action expressed by the verb is performed.

We may, therefore, take for one division of the predicate the noun or pronoun that is the object of the verb, together

with any words or phrases that directly modify this object, and we may set down the analysis thus:

"The early frosts of autumn had colored all the leaves of the maples."

Bare Subject,	frosts.
Modifiers of B.S.,	(1) The, (2) early, (3) of autumn.
Verb,	had colored.
Object with its Modifiers,	} all the leaves of the maples.

EXERCISE XXIII.

Analyze the following sentences according to the plan just given:

1. Very few people have read his account of it. 2. None of the boys got the correct answer. 3. To-day's paper gives a full description of the building. 4. His sister Mary won the prize for French. 5. Not many men would have done such a thing. 6. Which of you broke the handle of my parasol? 7. The storm during the night did a great deal of damage. 8. The children had gathered a lot of wild flowers. 9. Do any of you remember the little boy's name? 10. The owner of the lot offered to sell it. 11. How many bushels of wheat will this bin hold?

12. The modest wants of every day
The toil of every day supplied.

ADVERBIAL MODIFIERS.

48. Again, if we examine the following sentences:

He opened the door *quietly*. That *often* happens. They returned *to the camp in the evening*. She wrote all the names *plainly in the register*.

we see that we may have, either with or without an object, one or more adverbs or adverbial phrases modifying the verb.

We may, therefore, make another subdivision of the predicate, to include all adverbs or adverbial phrases that separately modify the verb, and we may set down our analysis thus:

"One of the boys answered all the questions correctly in a very short time."

Bare Subject,	One.
Modifiers of B.S.,	of the boys.
Verb,	answered.
Direct Object with Modifiers,	} all the questions
Adverbial Modifiers,	(1) correctly, (2) in a very short time.

EXERCISE XXIV.

Analyze the following sentences according to the plan given.

1. Two of the girls left their books in the hall. 2. These lazy boys have not learned any of their lessons. 3. Sometimes the older boys take him with them. 4. Have any of you ever seen the ruins by moonlight? 5. Fearing a storm she carefully closed all the windows. 6. During the night several prisoners escaped in a boat. 7. Most of the pupils had brought their lunch to school. 8. A number of them suddenly sprang into the water. 9. In the evening the older boys went for a row. 10. Probably the rest of the class would like to see it.

SUBJECTIVE COMPLEMENTS.

49. Lastly, if we examine sentences like the following:

This knife is *sharp*. He afterwards became *proprietor*. The boys will be *able to do that*. After a time he grew *tired of seeing it*. Mr. Brown was made *chairman of the committee*. These papers are *of no use*. The object evidently was *to deceive them*. That was *you*.

we see that in addition to the verb, and, in some cases, to an adverbial modifier, we have in each sentence a word or a group of words which, though forming part of the predicate, evidently describes the person or thing represented by the subject. Now, as the verbs in these sentences are *verbs of incomplete predication* (28), the term **Complement**, which means *something that completes*, is commonly applied to a word or phrase thus used to complete the statement, and as these complements define the subject more clearly we may call them **Subjective Complements**.

Observe that if the subjective complement is a single word it will be an adjective, a noun, or a pronoun: if it is a group of words either the chief word of the group will be an adjective, a noun, or a pronoun, or the whole group or phrase will have the value of an adjective or a noun.

We may, therefore, provide a sixth and final subdivision for the analysis of simple sentences, and we may agree for convenience to arrange the parts always in the following order:

- I. Bare Subject.
- II. Modifiers of the B.S.
- III. Verb.
- IV. Subjective Complements.
- V. Object and its Modifiers.
- VI. Adverbial Modifiers.

50. Of these six parts, Nos. I. and III. must, of course, be represented in every fully expressed sentence: the others may or may not be present.

It is important to notice, also, that, for reasons that will be better understood after we learn more about verbs, Nos. IV. and V. cannot both be present in a sentence, for a verb that takes the one after it cannot at the same time take the other. A few verbs, however, such as *prove*, *turn*, *grow*, which have different meanings, may be followed by either IV. or V. according to the way in which they are used: as,

IV. He turned *traitor*. The entertainment proved *a failure*. The weather grew *colder*.

V. He turned *the handle*. That proves *the correctness of my statement*. He grows *beautiful flowers*.

EXERCISE XXV.

Analyze the following sentences according to the plan given in 49:

1. These old coins are very valuable. 2. Several of the questions were too hard for the class. 3. Your uncle will soon be the richest man in the town. 4. This little boy found a watch on his way to school. 5. The whole family were at church this morning. 6. His friends will naturally be anxious about him. 7. After all our fears Wednesday proved a fine day. 8. How fresh your flowers look after the rain! 9. How many fish did your brother catch this morning? 10. His father has been Mayor of the city for two years. 11. The foolish boy had spent all his money on candy. 12. May the blessing of Providence rest upon his head! 13. The audience seemed quite satisfied. 14. His mother felt very sorry to disappoint him. 15. Are these rules ever of any help to you?

CONJUNCTIONS.

51. Hitherto we have been dealing with simple sentences expressing but one thought, and having only one subject and one predicate. It often happens, however, that we wish to connect two or more thoughts, and we shall find that just as we have prepositions to connect two notions expressed by words, so we have a special class of words to connect thoughts expressed by sentences.

Thus, if we take the following sentences:

She gave it to her brother, *and* he carried it home. I offered to buy it, *but* they would not sell it. She kept them in *because* they missed the lesson. They finished the work *before* it began to rain.

we see that each contains in reality two distinct statements connected by the italicized word, and that these connecting

words, as in the case of prepositions, express a relation between the parts that they join.

These words, then, which thus join sentences, are called **Conjunctions**, a word which means "joining together," and the separate sentences which they connect are for convenience called **Clauses**.

52. Observe, then, that a *Clause* can always be divided into a subject and a predicate, while a *Phrase*, which is always equal in value to a single part of speech, cannot be divided into a subject and a predicate.

We may now add the following definitions:

A clause is a sentence which forms part of a larger sentence.

A phrase is a group of related words having the value of a single part of speech, and having neither a subject nor a predicate.

EXERCISE XXVI.

Select the conjunctions in the following sentences:

1. They all waited till the game was finished. 2. I had no money, or I would have bought it. 3. It could not have been Jack, for he was not at school. 4. We met them as we were coming home from church. 5. He put the names on the blackboard that all might see them. 6. He insisted on starting, though it was raining hard. 7. He covered them, lest it might rain during the night. 8. The stove was so large that they could not move it.

II. Write sentences using the following words as conjunctions to join clauses: *Unless, after, if, since, until*.

53. Observe that with some conjunctions, especially, *if, though, unless, because, since, as, before, after*, the clauses which they introduce may begin the sentence.

Thus we may say equally well,

We need not wait any longer if that is the case, OR, If that is the case we need not wait any longer.

I would not have gone unless he had done that, OR, Unless he had done that I would not have gone.

54. Observe, also, that all the clauses in a sentence are not always fully expressed, and that, especially after *and, but, as, than, though*, it will often be necessary for the purpose of analysis to supply the subject and part of the predicate.

Thus in the following sentences :

He had called at the house and (he had) left a parcel. I will do so but (I will) not (do so) at present. It looks much better than (it looked) before. He plays as well as (he) ever (played). He will return to school though (he will) not (return) for some time.

the words in the parentheses would usually be omitted in speaking or writing, but have to be supplied for the purpose of analysis.

55. We have said that conjunctions connect clauses, but there are cases in which some conjunctions, especially, *and*, *but*, *or*, connect phrases or even words. Sometimes, where the conjunction seems to connect words or phrases, it is quite possible by supplying words to make it connect clauses.

Thus the following sentences :

She sells butter and eggs to the neighbors. He was a man of poor birth but of respectable character.

may, if we choose, be expanded thus :

She sells butter to the neighbors and she sells eggs to the neighbors. He was a man of poor birth but he was a man of respectable character.

and the conjunctions may be taken as connecting clauses.

In the case of sentences like the following, however :

These two are evidently brother and sister. He ate a slice of bread and butter. He lives in that house with the red roof and the green shutters.

it is not possible to expand them similarly, and we, therefore, take the conjunctions as joining words or phrases.

56. Observe, however, that in all cases in which conjunctions connect words or phrases merely, these words or phrases have the same function in the sentence.

We may define a conjunction, therefore, as follows :

A conjunction is a word which joins clauses, or, in some cases, words or phrases used in the same way in a clause.

57. As some words, such as *before*, *after*, *since*, are used with equal freedom as prepositions, adverbs, or conjunctions, and others, like *for*, *ere*, *till*, as prepositions or conjunctions, we must be careful, before attempting to classify them, to

observe in each case how the word is used. Thus, if we take the sentences:

That happened before the close of the meeting. That happened before the meeting closed. That never happened before.

it is plain that in the first there is only one statement, and that as *before* connects *happened* and *close*, and begins an adverbial phrase, it is, therefore, a preposition. In the second there are two statements, and as *before* connects these it is a conjunction. Lastly, in the third, *before* simply modifies *happened*, and is, therefore, an adverb.

EXERCISE XXVII.

I. Say whether the italicized words are prepositions, conjunctions, or adverbs, and give your reason in each case.

1. They waited *till* the bell rang. 2. We waited *till* noon. 3. I haven't seen her *since*. 4. *Since* he came we have had better order! 5. He hasn't been at school *since* Monday. 6. He will have to leave it, *for* it is too heavy *for* him. 7. Come to my room *after* recess. 8. He would not go again *after* he heard that. 9. There was no one *but* him in the room. 10. I sent for him *but* he would not come. 11. He sank *ere* the boat could reach him. 12. *Ere* night all were gone.

II. Write out in full the second clause in each of the following, supplying any words required:

1. I have written to his father and told him about it. 2. We sometimes use them, but not very often. 3. They will do so if necessary. 4. It is just as bad as before. 5. It is warmer than yesterday. 6. It is difficult to do so, though not impossible. 7. I shall not use it unless forced to do so. 8. Use it as directed in the instructions.

INTERJECTIONS.

58. In addition to the seven classes of words that we have now considered there remains still another, consisting of words that differ in one important respect from the other parts of speech.

If we take the following sentences:

Hallo! who is there? *Hurrah!* we have won the game. I ran to aid him, but *ah!* I was too late. *Pshaw!* that's no use.

we see that the italicized words are exclamations, uttered either, as in the first example, to attract attention, or, as in the others, to express strongly some feeling, such as joy, regret, impatience, or disgust. We see, too, that *they have no grammatical connection with the other words*, and that

they do not, therefore, really form part of the sentence in the same way as the other parts of speech do.

Such words, then, are called **Interjections**, from their being just, as it were, thrown into the sentence. They are, in fact, not so much parts of speech as short, abrupt speeches, expressing feeling rather than thought.

Nevertheless, as they are words forming parts of sentences, in appearance at least, it is convenient, and has been usual to class them as the eighth Part of Speech.

59. In addition to these *natural* interjections, which can hardly be used in any other way, there are what are sometimes called *secondary* interjections. Under this head are included words like *Behold*, *Farewell*, which are often used as exclamations. These may, however, at least in many cases, be treated as parts of incomplete sentences, as,

Behold (ye). (I bid you) Farewell.

An interjection may be defined as follows :

An interjection is an exclamation expressive of feeling, which has no grammatical relation to the rest of the sentence.

EXERCISE XXVIII.

I. Select the interjections in the following sentences, and tell, if possible, what feeling each expresses :

1. Hey! stop that, will you? 2. Ah Tom! those were happy days.
3. Bravo! That was well done. 4. Pooh! what do I care? 5. Ugh! it makes me sick. 6. Heigh ho! what's to be done now?

II. Write sentences using the following words first as Interjections, and then as some other part of speech :

Hush! Hail! Well! What! Indeed!

PECULIAR WORDS AND CLASSES OF WORDS.

60. We have now dealt in succession with all the parts of speech into which it is usual to divide words, and any pupil who has carefully studied what we have said in regard to each, and who will thoughtfully apply the test, *What does the word do?* ought to be able to classify correctly most of the words in an ordinary passage. We say *most*, for there are some words which, for one reason or another, he may find it difficult to dispose of.

Of these some will be dealt with in Part II., when we are again considering the parts of speech, but a few others that are often met with may be referred to here.

61. The words *Yes* and *No*, as used in answering questions, are generally classed as adverbs, but they cannot be said to modify any other word. They resemble Interjections in being really equal to sentences, and hence some call them **Sentence Words**. Others have called them **Responsives**, from their being used in answering questions. Of course, *no* is an adverb in such expressions as, "He felt *no* better." "I'll wait *no* longer"; and it may be an adjective; as, "We have *no* time for that."

62. The word *there*, which was originally an adverb of place, and is still commonly used as ~~such~~; as,

Stand *there* till I come back,

is now often used at or near the beginning of sentences or clauses with such a weakened force that it is impossible to give it any particular meaning, or to show that it has any grammatical value.

Thus, if we take the sentences:

Then *there* arose a great cry. In a few minutes *there* was not one left. *There* were several ladies present.

and leave out the word *there*, rearranging, if necessary; as,

Then arose a great cry. In a few minutes not one was left. Several ladies were present.

we cannot say that we have left out any part of the thought. Even where we could not drop out the *there* without spoiling the sentence: as,

There is no time for another game,

we should find it difficult to tell what additional meaning the word gives the sentence.

In such cases, then, the word *there* is now commonly called an **Introductory Expletive**, the word *expletive* meaning something that "fills out." Observe that when *there* is used in this way it is wholly without emphasis, and the subject usually comes after the verb.

63. The third case of difficulty is that of words which have a two-fold nature, that is, they do the work of

two parts of speech at the same time. Of these there are several classes. To one of them we have already made a passing reference (30) and we shall now deal briefly with two others.

If we examine the sentences:

(a). I sent word to his father, *who* came next day. He pushed the door, *which* opened easily.

(b). He came to the corner, *where* he turned to the west. We worked till noon, *when* we all agreed to stop.

we see that each of the italicized words does duty in two ways, first as a conjunction connecting the clauses, and also as a pronoun in (a), or as an adverb in (b); and that in fact we may, if we wish, substitute "and he," "and it," "and there," "and then," in turn. Consequently words like *who* and *which* are properly called **Conjunctive Pronouns**, though they are commonly known as **Relative Pronouns**, while *where* and *when*, and any words similarly used, are called **Conjunctive (or Relative) Adverbs**, though often spoken of as **Adverbial Conjunctions**.

64. Even when we cannot substitute two words for the one without making other changes in the sentence, it is not hard to see that the one word really performs a double duty. Thus in the sentence,

He handed me the letter *that* he had received,

it is evident that there are really two sentences included in the one, viz.:

He had received a letter, and he handed me the letter,

and that the word *that* serves at once as a connective of the two, and as a substitute for *letter* in one of them.

Similarly in the sentence,

I was very busy *when* he called,

the word *when* serves to connect the two statements,

"I was very busy," and "He called,"

and to modify the verb *called*.

65. Observe that when *who*, *which*, *when*, *where*, *how*, *why*, ask questions they have no conjunctive force; as *Who* told you that? *Where* did you get the book that you are reading? *Why* didn't you tell me that he had come?

EXERCISE XXIX.

I. In which of the following cases is *there* merely an expletive?

1. There goes Mr. A. with his rifle. 2. There was no one in the room. 3. There he stands in full view. 4. Leave it there till we come back. 5. By that time there will be light enough for us to see. 6. There is no one there.

II. Select the conjunctive pronouns and conjunctive adverbs in the following:

1. Which of them did you see when you called? 2. Just remain where you are. 3. Why didn't you answer the letter that I sent you? 4. He would not tell us why he had done it. 5. Who can explain how this result is produced? 6. Where is the boy whose dog won?

III. Combine each of the following pairs into one sentence by using conjunctive pronouns or conjunctive adverbs:

- (a). I lent her a book. She has not returned the book.
- (b). A gentleman bought it. The gentleman lives in Hamilton.
- (c). He heard the good news. He hurried home.
- (d). You were working there. You must have left it there.
- (e). You did not want to go. I know the reason.

CLASSIFICATION OF CLAUSES AND SENTENCES.

66. As we have seen that words and phrases can be classified according to their function or use in sentences, we may expect to find that clauses can be similarly classified.

If we take the following sentences:

(a). I gave him the money and he put it in his pocket. We offered to buy it, but he would not sell it. It is not here, or I would lend it to you.

(b). She declared *that he had taken it*. You have no proof of *what you assert*.

(c). I have no patience with boys *who do that*. He showed me the letter *that he received*.

(d). They will come *when you want them*. You did not act *as you should have done*.

we see that while in each there are two clauses, the relation between the two is not the same in each.

In the three sentences in (a) the two clauses are of the same nature, and as neither depends on any word in the other each is said to be **Independent**.

A sentence consisting wholly of independent clauses is called a **Compound Sentence**.

67. On the other hand it is plain that in each of the six sentences in (b), (c), (d) the first clause makes the main assertion, and the other is in fact equivalent to a single word depending in some way on the main clause. Thus the italicized clauses in (b) are equivalent to nouns standing as the objects of the verb *declared*, and the preposition *of*; those in (c) to adjectives modifying *boys* and *letter*, and, lastly, those in (d) to adverbs modifying *will come* and *did act*.

In such sentences, then, the clause that contains the main assertion (or question or command), is called the **Principal** clause, and the others are called **Subordinate**, or **Dependent** clauses. Dependent clauses are classified according to their grammatical equivalence; thus we have **Noun** clauses, as in (b); **Adjective** clauses, as in (c); **Adverb** clauses, as in (d).

A sentence containing a principal clause with one or more subordinate ones dependent on it is called a **Complex** sentence.

68. Observe that conjunctions do not form part of either of the clauses which they connect, but that in complex sentences the conjunctive pronouns and conjunctive adverbs form part of the clauses which they introduce.

69. Observe, also, that a subordinate clause may precede the principal one; as,

When he reached home he was very tired. If I had known that I would have gone. What he wanted nobody knew.

70. Observe, also, that there may be two or more subordinate clauses in a sentence, and that each may depend separately on words in the principal clause; as,

The gentleman who bought it told me after he had examined it that it was a rare specimen.

or some of them may depend on words in some of the other subordinate clauses; as,

I learned afterwards that the boy who found it knew that it belonged to her

Sentences that contain two or more independent clauses and one or more dependent ones may be called **Compound Complex**; as,

I called his attention to the mistake which he had made, and he promised to correct it. They could not have known that when they were here, or they would have told us where you were.

EXERCISE XXX.

I. Classify the following sentences as compound or complex.

II. Select the subordinate clauses, classify each according to its grammatical value, and give its relation.

1. They never stopped till they reached the gate. 2. We called at the office but there was no one in. 3. Put that back where you got it. 4. He returned the book which I lent him. 5. You will have to hurry or you will be late. 6. We overtook her as we were coming home. 7. I don't believe that he can do it. 8. Somebody had left the gate open and the cows had got into the garden. 9. After you went away he told me all about it. 10. I have not heard from him since he went to Chicago.

71. Observe that the same word may introduce different kinds of clauses, and that it is necessary, therefore, to observe carefully in each case how a clause is used before we can be sure of its nature and relation. Thus we have the following:

Principal.— *Where is the carriage which I ordered?*
That was all arranged before we started.

Noun.— *He would not tell where he found it.*
She does not know that you are here.

Adjectival.— *This is the very spot where it stood.*
Pick up the papers that are on the floor.

Adverbial.— *I left it where I found it.*
Hold it up that all may see it.

EXERCISE XXXI.

Classify the subordinate clauses in the following and give the relation of each:

1. I remember the time when that happened. 2. We could not find out when the stage starts. 3. It was so dark that I could not see the road. 4. The books that we read influence us. 5. When will the names of those that have passed be published? 6. He promised to show me where they live. 7. That house was built before you were born. 8. That I said so is quite true. 9. He would not tell me who gave it to him. 10. Speak out that we may hear you.

72. Exercises in varying the construction of sentences are easily framed and will be found very helpful not only

for grammatical purposes, but also as an aid to composition, by giving pupils a greater and readier choice of modes of expression.

The following are given as examples of changes:

1. From Simple Sentences to Complex or Compound:

- Simple, We find traces of it everywhere.
 Complex, We find traces of it wherever we go.
 Simple, I notified him of your appointment.
 Complex, I notified him that you had been appointed.
 Simple, He left the very day of our arrival.
 Complex, He left the very day that we arrived.
 Simple, Having read the letter, he handed it to the judge.
 Compound, He read the letter and then handed it to the judge.
 Simple, He went home, promising to return soon.
 Compound, He went home but promised to return soon.
 Simple, Without his help I should have failed.
 Compound, He helped me or I should have failed.

2. From Complex to Compound, or Compound to Complex:

- Complex, As I had never been there I was anxious to go.
 Compound, I had never been there and so was anxious to go.
 Compound, He gave a reason but I have forgotten it.
 Complex, I have forgotten the reason which he gave.
 Complex, I shall have to punish you unless you do so.
 Compound, You must do so, or I shall have to punish you.

3. From Complex or Compound to Simple:

- Complex, He insisted that we should accompany him.
 Simple, He insisted on our accompanying him.
 Complex, It was so heavy that I could not lift it.
 Simple, It was too heavy for me to lift it.
 Compound, They rested for a few minutes and then went on again.
 Simple, After a few minutes' rest they went on again.
 Compound, His parents became alarmed and went to look for him.
 Simple, His parents, becoming alarmed, went to look for him.

EXERCISE XXXII.—REVIEW OF PART I.

I. Write three Assertive, three Interrogative, and three Imperative Sentences.

II. Write seven sentences containing two, three, four, five, six, seven, eight Parts of Speech, respectively.

III. Classify the italicized words in the following sentences:

- ✓ 1. *Water* these plants. 2. These plants need *water*. 3. He *plants* them in rows. 4. We *open* the door of the hall. 5. The *hall* door is open. 6. He does *better* work. 7. They *work* better in the morning. 8. He has been *here* since Tuesday. 9. He has not been away *from*

here since I came. 10. I feel *much* stronger. 11. *Much* was spoiled by the rain. 12. He gave us a hearty *welcome*. 13. We *welcome* you to our house. 14. Your friends will be *welcome*. 15. That is your *only* hope. 16. He *only* laughed at me. 17. It will rain *before* night. 18. We heard that *before* you did. 19. A wolf is *like* a dog. 20. I never saw the *like* of it.

IV. Write sentences using

close, right, equal, as nouns ;
daily, silver, paper, as adjectives ;
this, any, both, as pronouns ;
wrong, fence, dry, as verbs ;
since, down, on, as adverbs ;
up, off, till, as prepositions ;
that, for, after, as conjunctions .

V. Write sentences giving the word *round* as many grammatical values as you can, and tell the value in each case.

VI. Classify, if possible, each word in the following :

One day a boy went into a baker's shop and bought a twopenny loaf. As it seemed to him rather small, he said that it did not appear to be of full weight. "Never mind," answered the baker. "you will have less to carry." "That is quite true," replied the lad, and throwing down three half-pence on the counter, he left the shop. "Hi! Stop!" called the baker, "You have not given me enough money." "Never mind," the boy coolly called back, "you will have less to count."

VII. Write three simple sentences containing respectively an adjective phrase, an adverb phrase, and a noun phrase.

VIII. Write two simple sentences, using "on the floor" as an adjective phrase and as an adverb phrase.

IX. Give one example each of a modifier of the bare subject, a direct object, an adverbial modifier and a subjective complement, underlining the example in each case.

X. Analyze the following simple sentences :

1. At such times the demand for it usually exceeds the supply.
 2. The great value of this mineral arises chiefly from its scarcity.
 3. The barometer is in this way of great service to mariners. 4. The heat of their climate protects the inhabitants from invasion. 5. The large audience seemed satisfied with his explanation. 6. That little defect in the iron was probably the cause of the accident. 7. Fortunately his father was at home that day. 8. Several of the workmen were seriously injured by the explosion.

9. And to the hilt his vengeful sword
 He plunged in Gelert's side.

10. A little boy with crumbs of bread
 Many a hungry sparrow fed.

XI. Write a compound sentence consisting of three clauses connected by *and* and *but*.

XII. Write three complex sentences containing a noun clause, an adjective clause, and an adverb clause respectively.

XIII. Write a complex sentence containing an example of each of the three kinds of subordinate clauses.

XIV. How does an interjection differ from any other part of speech?

XV. Write sentences containing examples of (a) a verb of incomplete predication, (b) a conjunctive adverb, (c) *there* used as an introductory expletive.

XVI. Select the adjective and adverb phrases in the following stanzas, classify each, and give its grammatical relation:

A mariner, whom fate compelled
To make his home on shore,
Lived in yon cottage on the mount,
With ivy mantled o'er,
Because he could not breathe beyond
The sound of ocean's roar.

Ten years, in vigorous old age,
Within that cot he dwelt;
Tranquil as falls the snow on snow
Life's lot to him was dealt;
But came infirmity at length,
And slowly o'er him stealt.

XVII. Write out in full the subordinate clauses in the following, and tell the kind and relation of each:

1. When the ice melts in the spring the logs that have been prepared during the winter are floated down to a place where their farther progress is stopped by a boom.

2. An old raftsmen with whom I conversed told me that unless these rafts are managed with great care they are apt to go to pieces while they are descending the rapids.

3. If he had known that you were present when it happened he would not have said what he did.

4. The committee that have charge of that matter want to know before they make final arrangements how many of you intend to go.

5. Sadly, as the shades of even
Gathered o'er the hill,
While the western half of heaven
Blushed with sunset still,
From the fountain's mossy seat
Turned the Indian's weary feet,

XVIII. Change the following 'simple sentences to complex or to compound by expanding words or phrases into clauses:

1. It belongs to a lady of my acquaintance. 2. We know this to be a fact. 3. The breaking of a bolt caused another delay. 4. Can you tell me the meaning of this word? 5. Not having expected us they were not prepared. 6. I doubt the truth of his statement. 7. All its attempts to escape were fruitless. 8. No one will be admitted without a ticket. 9. He returned to his native village. - 11. Calling his friends together he asked their advice.

XIX. Change from compound to complex, and complex to compound:

1. He refused to go and I know the reason. 2. He would have gone if they would have let him. 3. The statement is false and he knows it. 4. He promised to return it the same day or I would not have lent it to him. He rejected both the offers that were made for it. 6. I am well aware that such a course is unusual. 7. I was frightened, but you were just as much frightened. 8. If I had not got a ride I should have been late. 9. Do that and then they will be more likely to trust you. 10. Though he has left us we shall not blame him.

XX. Contract the following into simple sentences by substituting words or phrases for clauses:

1. You asked me a question and I have answered it. 2. It will show that he is sincere. 3. I could not have done it unless he had helped me. 4. He was so tired that he could not go any farther. 5. He stayed with us while the trial was going on. 6. The one who succeeds him will have a difficult task. 7. There is no reason why they should complain. 8. It is probable that he will do so. 9. Neither this answer nor that is correct. 10. He had been ill and had not been able to finish it. 11. He claims that he was the first to use it. 12. Is there no way in which it can be mended? 13. He applied for a permit but his application was refused. 14. The questions were harder than they usually are. 15. It was reported that he had left town.

PART II.

THE PARTS OF SPEECH.

THEIR CLASSIFICATION AND INFLECTIONS.

73. In Part I. we have dealt briefly with sentences and the parts of which they are composed, and pupils that have attended carefully to what has been said ought now to be able to analyze ordinary simple sentences, to distinguish between phrases and clauses, and to classify correctly as parts of speech most of the words in an ordinary passage.

We shall now in Part II. take up the parts of speech again, in turn, and consider them more fully, with special reference to the classes into which they may be divided, the changes of form which they undergo, and the mistakes which must be guarded against in using them.

74. Before doing so, however, it may be well to show what is meant in grammar by **inflection**, and to distinguish it from two other methods of word formation with which it is sometimes confounded.

No doubt all have noticed by this time that nouns, verbs, and some pronouns and adjectives may change their form more or less. Thus, for instance, we find

<i>man</i>	changing to	<i>man's, men, men's</i>
<i>they</i>	"	<i>theirs, them</i>
<i>cold</i>	"	<i>colder, coldest</i>
<i>break</i>	"	<i>breaks, breaking, broke, broken</i>

These changes, in the body or ending of words, or in both, are spoken of in grammar as *inflections*.

75. If we observe carefully the way in which these different forms are employed in sentences, as, for instance, in the following groups:

- (a). The *man* is in danger. The *man's* life is in danger.
They came to school. We sent *them* home.
I break it. He *breaks it.*

- (b). One man came. Several men came.
 I break it now. I broke it then.
 This room is cold. The other is colder.

we find that the change is made to mark some difference either, as in (a), in the *use* of the words, or, as in (b), in the *meaning* of the words.

We may, therefore, define inflection as follows :

Inflection is a change in the form of a word depending on some change in its use or its meaning.

76. If we examine the other parts of speech we shall find that with the exception of a few adverbs, such as *soon*, *sooner*, *soonest*, they do not undergo any such changes of form as we have been speaking of. Adverbs, prepositions, and conjunctions are, therefore, said to be *uninflected*.

77. Two things more we shall discover in regard to inflection as we proceed.

(1). The number of inflections is quite small, and is fixed, so that we cannot now form any new ones. A pupil can, therefore, very soon learn all the inflections that ordinary words can have.

(2). Inflection gives us not wholly new words, but merely other grammatical forms of the same word. Thus if we consult an ordinary dictionary we shall find *horse*, but not *horse's* or *horses*; *who*, but not *whose* or *whom*; *tall*, but not *taller* or *tallest*; *take*, but not *takes*, *taking*, *took*, *taken*.

DERIVATION AND COMPOSITION.

78. We said (74) that there are two other methods of word formation with which inflection is sometimes confounded, and we shall now speak briefly of these.

If we refer again to the dictionary we shall find that while *man's*, *men*, *men's*, are not given, there are such words as *manly*, *manhood*, *unman*. These are, however, evidently not other forms of the word *man*, but wholly new words formed from it. Similarly, though *speaks*, *spoke*, *spoken* are not given, we shall find *speaker*, *speech*, *bespeak*, and so, too, we shall find *darken* and *darkness*, but not *darcker* and *darkest*.

This method, then, of forming *new* words by putting at the beginning, or at the end of words, or at both, syllables that cannot be used by themselves as words, is called **derivation**, and words so formed, such as *manly*, *bespeak*, *darkness*, are called **Derivatives**.

79. A syllable placed at the beginning of a word for this purpose is called a **Prefix**; as *un* in *unfair*, *mis* in *mislead*. One placed at the end is called an **Affix** or **Suffix**; as *ness* in *thickness*, *ly* in *warmly*.

There may be a change in the body of a word, as when we form *length* and *linger* from *long*. A word may include both a *prefix* and an *affix*, or more than one of either. Thus from *fair*, *appear*, *civil*, we have *unfairly*, *disappearance*, *civilization*.

Derivatives formed by prefixes are generally the same part of speech as the original words; those formed by affixes are usually different. Thus from the adjective *just* we have the adjective *unjust*, the adverb *justly*, the noun *justness*, and the verb *justify*.

The number of derivatives that may be formed from a word is not fixed, as in the case of inflections, but may vary with each word. Thus, while from *cold* we have only *coldly* and *coldness*, from *pure* we have not only *purely* and *pureness*, but also *purity*, *purify*, *impure*, *impurity*.

80. Lastly, if we consult the dictionary once more, while we need not look for *higher* and *highest*, we shall find not only such derivatives as *highly*, *highness*, *height*, *heighten*, but also such words as *highlands*, *highway*, *highwayman*, which differ from the derivatives in this, that each part of the word can still be used by itself.

This method of forming new words by combining two or more words, each of which may still be used separately, is called **Composition**, and words so formed, such as *highway*, *daylight*, *sunrise*, are called **Compounds**.

81. If we examine a number of compounds; as, *school-mate*, *barefoot*, *teapot*, *breakfast*, *forehead*, *atone*, *alone*, *pastime*, *fornight*, we find that in forming them four changes may take place, namely, the loss of an accent, a change of sound, a change of form, and a change of meaning. All four, for instance, are seen in the change

from *holy day* to *holiday*. Sometimes, indeed, the parts become so changed that we do not recognize the word as a compound. Thus we should hardly think of *daisy* as a compound of *day's eye*, and, still less, of *hussy* as formed from *housewife*.

Of the four changes the loss of an accent is the only one sure to take place in a **permanent** compound. Till that has occurred the word must be regarded as a **temporary** compound, and should be written with a hyphen; as, *half-way*, *book-case*, *high-church*.

Observe that the first part of the compound usually modifies the second. Thus a *race-horse* is a particular kind of *horse*, while a *horse-race* is a particular kind of *race*.

EXERCISE XXXIII.

I. Give all the inflected forms you know of the following :

Child, hero, woman, he, who, dog, hot, give, do, teach.

II. Form a derivative from each of the following by putting a prefix to it:

Tell, take, appear, large, just, open, shore, long.

III. Form a derivative from each of the following by adding an affix:

Nation, happy, boy, joy, Italy, year, foreign, hate, cloud, force.

IV. Form all the derivatives you can from each of the following :

Friend, wise, broad, true, love, able, give.

V. Form ten compounds, of which the following shall respectively form part:

House, boat, road, fish, pen, bed, store, chair, ink, sun.

VI. Say in regard to each of the following whether it is an example of inflection, derivation, or composition:

Hardship, writer, written, noblest, nobly, sidewalk, walked, gave, statement, outlook, golden, children.

VII. Give an adjective formed from each of the following :

Passion, wood, red, tire, wealth, thought, west, fire, cat, grace.

VIII. Form nouns from the following :

Child, idle, strong, free, sail, drive, weigh, beg, law, team.

IX. Form adverbs from the following :

True, civil, gay, heroic, happy, due, north, joyful.

X. Form verbs from the following :

Hard, civil, see, lock, set, draw, trust, long, courage, just.

NOUNS.

82. Having shown what is meant by *inflection*, and distinguished it from the formation of new words by *derivation* and *composition*, we shall now take up the parts of speech again, and shall begin as before with nouns.

In Part I. (16) we defined a noun as the name of anything about which we can express a thought. It follows, then, that not only are such words as *health*, *absence*, *regret*, nouns, but that any word may be used as a noun when treated merely as a name. Thus, in the following sentences:

He wrote *is* instead of *are*. To whom does the *they* refer? Don't use *and* so often. *Always* is an adverb.

the italicized words have the value of nouns.

83. We know that it is the custom to give a separate name to every person, and so, too, to every place of importance, and to many domestic animals. In the case of the common animals and objects around us, however, we do not think it necessary, even if it were practicable, to have a separate name for each. For them we have, instead, names that apply in common to any number of objects which, though differing in some respects, are yet alike in certain characteristics; as, *sheep*, *bird*, *house*, *tree*; or to the same material wherever it is found; as, *grass*, *clay*, *water*, *smoke*.

We may, therefore, divide nouns into two classes:

(1). Names given to *individuals*, whether persons or things, as mere distinguishing marks; as, *Mary*, *Tennyson*, *Jacques Cartier*, *Nova Scotia*, *Ottawa*.

These are known as **Proper Nouns**, the word *proper* in this case meaning *one's own*, or *individual*, and they are always distinguished by having capitals, as are also adjectives derived from them; as, *Christian*, *European*, *British*, *Parisian*.

(2). Names that may be applied to any one of a class of objects having common characteristics; as, *horse*, *flower*, *boat*; or to the same materials wherever found; as, *milk*, *gold*, *paper*.

These we call **Common Nouns**, meaning that they are names common to all things of the kind.

84. Observe that, as a rule, a proper noun tells us nothing about the person or thing, but is a mere distinguishing mark or title. A proper noun is, indeed, very often like a pronoun in this respect, that it conveys no meaning to us till we know the connection in which it is used in the sentence.

Thus *Peter*, like *he*, may refer to a man, a boy, a horse, or a dog, and similarly *Florence* may mean a woman, a girl, a city, or a boat.

On the other hand a common noun not only names but is to some extent a description of the thing spoken of; that is, the very mention of the word calls up to the mind certain characteristics. Thus each of the words *province*, *lake*, *county*, *boat*, *street*, *bank*, calls up certain ideas to the mind, while the name *Ontario*, which of itself suggests nothing, has been given to an individual of each of the classes represented by the six common nouns, and might equally well be given to individuals of other classes.

Common nouns are sometimes, therefore, said to be **significant**, that is, "having a meaning."

It is true, of course, that the same proper name may be given to a number of individuals of the same class. Thus we may have many Smiths and McDonalds, but the name is still a mere designation of individuals, and does not imply the possession of common qualities or characteristics. We still treat such names, therefore, as proper nouns.

85. When a common noun, with *the* before it, is used to designate a particular member of a class it becomes for the time being a proper noun, and as such is to be written with a capital. Thus, we write "the Queen," meaning Queen Victoria, "the Mayor," meaning the present mayor of the town or city of which we are speaking. This is true also in cases where we use two or three words as a title, as "the Prairie Province," "the Forest City," "the Governor-General," and in cases in which a quality or state is spoken of as a person; as,

But *Memory* blushes at the sneer.

But *Knowledge* to their eyes her ample page,
Rich with the spoils of time did ne'er unroll.

86. While we do not think it necessary to sub-divide these two classes of nouns into others, there are two names that are often used in speaking of certain kinds of common nouns, and that we shall, therefore, explain :

(1). A common noun that serves as a name for a collection of persons or things united in one group is called a **Collective** noun : as, *committee, crew, flock, fleet*.

A peculiarity of collective nouns is that we may speak of the group either as a unit ; as,

A committee was appointed to consider it.

or as composed of individuals acting separately ; as,

The committee were discussing the report.

(2). The names of qualities, actions, states, and feelings are often called **Abstract** nouns. By this we mean that they are names of things which do not really exist by themselves, but which we think of as *abstracted* or separated from the objects in which they are found.

Thus the qualities of which *warmth, courage, sweetness* are the names, have not really a separate existence, apart from persons and things that possess them, but for convenience we speak of them as if they had.

Abstract nouns may be formed from

Adjectives ; as, *long, length ; ignorant, ignorance.*

Nouns ; as, *hero, heroism ; friend, friendship.*

Verbs ; as, *believe, belief ; please, pleasure.*

EXERCISE XXXIV.

I. Give a corresponding proper noun for each of the following common nouns :

Lake, battle, county, planet, village, boat, newspaper, magazine, author, general.

II. Give a corresponding common noun for each :

Spain, Winnipeg, Nile, Tennyson, Pyrenees, Ponto, Pennsylvania, Jessie, Atlantic, Gladstone.

III. Form an abstract noun from each :

Strong, curious, bright, silent, just, slave, child, bond, tyrant, Christian, deceive, relieve, choose, advise, condemn.

IV. What words in the following sentences are used as proper nouns, and should therefore have capitals ?

1. There is to be an excursion to the model farm on labor day.
2. The residence of the president at Washington is called the white

house. 3. A deputation of patrons waited on the premier. 4. He is at present attending the school of science. 5. He has been appointed chief justice of the court of appeal.

V. Write adjectives corresponding to the following proper names :

Spain, Portugal, Turkey, Norway, Greece, Switzerland, Wales, Sweden, Denmark, Peru, Asia, China.

VI. Select from the following list (a) the collective nouns ; (b) the abstract nouns :

Chalk, color, jury, poverty, anger, class, clover, size, crowd, family, plant, width, peace, company, confidence, herd, marble, group, learning, age.

GENDER.

87. Besides the division into Proper and Common there is another way of classifying nouns, namely, according to the *sex* of the object named.

We know that creatures possessing animal life are divided into two sexes, male and female, while plants and things without life have no sex. We may, therefore, divide all things into three classes :

(1) Things of the male sex, (2) things of the female sex, (3) things without sex.

Similarly we may divide the names of things, that is nouns, into three corresponding classes, or **genders**, the word *gender* meaning properly a *class*.

(1). **Masculine** nouns, or names of males ; as, *uncle, hero, gander*.

(2). **Feminine** nouns, or names of females ; as, *aunt, heroine, goose*.

(3). **Neuter** nouns, or names of things of *neither* sex, *neuter* meaning simply *neither* ; as, *tree, house, stone*.

Although, as we have said, all things possessing animal life have sex, yet we commonly think of the great majority of animals, and often of young children, as if they were without sex ; and, as shown by our using *it* and *its* instead of *he* or *she*, etc., in speaking of them, we treat their names as neuter ; as, *sheep, bear, cat, pigeon, baby*. It is not necessary, therefore, to mention the gender of nouns in parsing, except in the case of those that apply to only one sex ; as, *duke, ewe, heroine*.

88. There are three ways in which we mark the distinction in nouns corresponding to the difference of sex in the objects named :

(1). By using different words ; as,

Masculine.	Feminine.	Masculine.	Feminine.
bachelor,	maid (or spinster).	husband,	wife.
boy,	girl.	king,	queen.
brother,	sister.	lord,	lady.
bull (or ox),	cow.	man,	woman.
bullock (or steer),	heifer.	nephew,	niece.
buck,	doe.	papa,	mamma.
cock,	hen.	ram,	ewe.
colt,	filly. .	sir,	madam.
drake,	duck.	sire,	dam.
earl,	countess.	son,	daughter.
father,	mother.	stag,	hind.
friar (or monk),	nun.	swain,	nymph.
gander,	goose.	uncle,	aunt.
gentleman,	lady.	wizard,	witch.
hart,	roe.	youth,	maiden.
horse,	mare.		

(2). By adding a word indicating sex ; as,

Masculine.	Feminine.	Masculine.	Feminine.
buck-rabbit,	doe-rabbit.	pea-cock,	pea-hen.
he-goat,	she-goat.	merman,	mermaid.
man-servant,	maid-servant.		

(3). By the use of the affix *ess* to mark the feminine. In most cases this is simply added to the masculine ; as, *priest*, *priestess*, but sometimes a little further change is made, usually the dropping out of a letter or syllable ; as, *actor*, *actress*. The following list contains most of the words in which such a change is made :

Masculine.	Feminine.	Masculine.	Feminine.
abbot,	abbess.	master,	mistress.
benefactor,	benefactress.	murderer,	murderess.
duke,	duchess.	negro,	negress.
emperor,	empress.	protector,	protectress.
enchanter,	enchantress.	songster,	songstress.
god,	goddess.	sorcerer,	sorceress.
governor,	governess.	tiger,	tigress.
lad,	lass (for laddress).	traitor,	traitress,
marquis,	marchioness.	votary,	votaress.

The masculines *widower* and *bridegroom* have been formed from the feminines *widow* and *bride*. *Seamstress* and *vixen* have now no corresponding masculine.

A few foreign words that are not often used retain their proper feminine. The following are the commonest:

Masculine.	Feminine.	Masculine.	Feminine.
administrator,	administratrix.	czar,	czarina.
executor,	executrix.	don,	donna.
testator,	testatrix.	signor,	signora.
beau,	belle.	sultan,	sultana.

Observe that in some cases where we have separate names for the sexes we may use one of them as including both sexes. Thus we may speak of a woman as "a well-known *authoress*," or as "one of the popular *authors* of the day." So, too, we may say, without any reference to sex,

A *goose* is larger than a *duck*.

(PERSONIFICATION.)

89. Inanimate objects, qualities, feelings, and conditions are sometimes spoken of as if they were endowed with life and sex. They are then said to be **personified**, that is, "treated as persons," and the change is spoken of as **Personification**.

In such cases the sex depends on one or other of the following causes:

(1). The influence of classical mythology, according to which there were numerous gods and goddesses. Thus *War*, *Time*, *Love*, the *Sun* were represented as gods, and accordingly we use *he*, *his*, *him* in speaking of them: while *Peace*, *Justice*, the *Moon*, the *Earth*, were represented as goddesses, and we, therefore, use *she*, *hers*, *her* in speaking of them; as,

Time had laid *his* hand gently on *her*.

Peace hath *her* victories no less renowned than war.

(2). Certain qualities, such as strength, boldness, violence, have come to be associated with the male sex, and hence the ocean, rivers, and winds are represented as males; other qualities, such as gentleness, beauty, timidity, are associated with the female sex, and hence a ship, a flower, a city, are generally treated as females; as,

Mont Blanc is the monarch of mountains;
They crowned *him* long ago.

The ship that under sail
Spreads *her* white bosom to the gale.

The same principle applies in speaking of animals. Thus we generally use *he* in speaking of an elephant or an eagle, and *she* in speaking of a *dove* or a *hare*.

(3). Things that are objects of a man's special care are usually spoken of as females. Thus an engine is generally spoken of by its usual attendants as *she*.

We must be careful to remember that while sex belongs to animals, gender refers, properly speaking, only to words, and hence it is not correct to say "gender is the distinction of sex," or to speak of "persons of the masculine gender."

EXERCISE XXXV.

I. Tell the gender of each of the following nouns and give the corresponding gender form when there is one :

Hero, friend, niece, peer, mermaid, witch, ram, earl, sovereign, lady, son-in-law, executor, editor, landlord, belle, spinster, peacock, negro, abbess, marquis, czar, lass, seamstress, Mr., bride.

II. What sex would you assign to each of the following when personified ?

Night, Winter, Liberty, Fortune, Death, Ireland, Toronto, the North Wind, the Mississippi, Nature, a tree, a college, Spring, a lake, Hope.

NUMBER.

90. Having dealt with the classification of nouns let us now notice what inflections they have. If we observe carefully the following sentences :

I met a *man*. I met several *men*.

He drives one *horse*. He drives two *horses*.

She broke this *dish*. She broke these *dishes*.

we see that when we speak of more than one person or thing we make some change in the form of the noun that we use when speaking of one.

Nouns are said, then, to be inflected for **Number**, and the form that denotes one is said to be of the **Singular** number, while that which denotes more than one is said to be of the **Plural** number.

91. If now we take the names of a dozen objects in the school-room and write down beside each its plural form ; as,

boy	boys	slate	slates	map	maps
girl	girls	pencil	pencils	ruler	rulers
desk	desks	pen	pens	box	boxes
book	books	brush	brushes	bottle	bottles

we see that in each case the plural has been formed by adding *s* or *es* to the singular, *es* being added only where we have to make a new syllable in pronouncing the word.

If we examine a large number of nouns, however, we shall find that there are many classes of them which have peculiarities that need to be spoken of separately. We shall, therefore, sum up the results of our examination in the following statements:

(1). The plural of nouns is generally formed by adding *s* to the singular; as, *dogs, trees, houses*.

(2). Nouns ending in *s, sh, ch* (sounded like *tsh*), *x* or *z*, and most nouns in common use ending in *o*, add *es*; as, *atlases, losses, dishes, churches, boxes, waltzes, potatoes*.

Uncommon words in *o* and words in *io* and *oo* add *s* merely; as, *cantos, quartos, portfolios, cuckoos*; also a few words in fairly common use; as, *pianos, solos, mementos, provisos*.

(3). The following nouns in *f* or *fe*, form the plural in *ves*: *beef, calf, elf, half, knife, leaf, life, loaf, self, shelf, sheaf, thief, wife, wolf, staff* (a walking stick) *and wharf* (which also has *wharfs*). Other nouns in *f* or *fe* simply add *s*; as, *scarfs, gulfs, chiefs, proofs, muffs, fives*.

(4). Common nouns in *y* preceded by a consonant, or by *qu*, form their plural in *ies*; as, *duties, soliloquies*. Other nouns in *y* simply add *s*; as, *days, moneys, Marys*.

(5). A few nouns in common use retain plurals formed in other ways used in Old English; as,

man	men;	woman	women;	ox	oxen	child	children;
foot	feet;	goose	geese;	tooth	teeth;	mouse	mice.

(6). Most compound nouns take the sign of the plural at the end; as, *spoonfuls, on-lookers, tooth-brushes, fishermen, governor-generals, forget-me-nots*.

A few compounds in which the first part is the more important add the sign of the plural to it: as, *sons-in-law, goings-on, courts-martial, commanders-in-chief*; and a very few pluralize both parts; as, *men-servants, knights-templars*.

Observe that *German, Ottoman, Mussulman, Turcoman*, are not compounds of *man*, and, therefore, simply add *s*, as also does *Norman*.

Compounds like *Mr. Brown, Miss Smith*, may pluralize either part. Thus we may say, "There are two Miss

Smiths in the class." or "The Misses Smith called this afternoon." The latter form is preferred in speaking of sisters.

(7). Letters, signs, and figures are pluralized by adding an apostrophe and *s*; as,

He drops his *h*'s. There are three *+*'s and two *-*'s. You can't tell her 5's from her 3's.

Some writers pluralize proper names and other parts of speech used as nouns, in the same way; as "the Smith's," "the why's and the wherefore's." It is better, however, to omit the apostrophe in such cases.

(8). Foreign words, whether originally nouns or not, that become **naturalized**, that is, adopted into common use as nouns, take an English plural by adding *s*, or, if the sound requires it, *es*; as, *albums*, *bonuses*, *items*, *aliases*.

Other foreign nouns used in English retain their proper plural. The following are the commonest endings of words borrowed from Latin or Greek.

(a). *us* becomes *i*: as, *radius*, *terminus*, *focus*. But *genus* makes *genera*, and *apparatus* is used only in the singular.

(b). *um* and *on* become *a*; as, *datum*, *erratum*, *memorandum*, *stratum*, *automaton*, *criterion*, *phenomenon*.

(c). *a* becomes *ae*; as, *formula*, *larva*, *nebula*, *vertebra*.

(d). *is* becomes *es*; as, *axis*, *analysis*, *basis*, *crisis*, *ellipsis*, *hypothesis*, *oasis*, *parenthesis*.

(e). *ex* or *ix* becomes *ices*; as, *apex*, *appendix*, *vertex*.

We may add the following plurals from the French: *Messieurs*, for which we commonly write *Messrs.*; *Mesdames*, used as a needed plural for *Mrs.*; and *beaux* and *tableaux*, in which the *x* is sounded like *z*.

(9). Some foreign nouns retain their original plural, and have also acquired an English one, usually with a different sense; as,

genius	{ <i>genii</i> , guardian spirits. <i>geniuses</i> , persons of genius.
index	{ <i>indices</i> , signs in Algebra. <i>indexes</i> , tables of reference.

A few common words have also two plural forms with different meanings.

brother	{ brothers, members of the same family. { brethren, members of the same society.
cloth	{ cloths, pieces of cloth. { clothes, garments made of cloth.
die	{ dies, stamps used in coining. { dice, cubes used in playing.
pea	{ peas, separate grains. { pease, in a collective sense.
penny	{ pennies, separate coins. { pence, an amount or value.

(10). A few nouns have the same form for plural as for singular : as, "a sheep," "a flock of sheep." So *deer*, *heathen*, and most names of fish ; as, *salmon*, *perch*, *cod*.

A number of other words are sometimes used in the same way, especially when preceded by a numeral adjective. Thus we say, "three *yoke* of oxen," "a *ten-foot* pole," "a *three-mile* race," "sixty *head* of cattle," "twenty-*horse* power," "six *dozen* eggs," "an eight-*day* clock," "a *five-cent* piece."

(11). Some words have only a plural form. The following are among the commonest : *ashes*, *annals*, *archives*, *auspices*, *assets*, *billiards*, *credentials*, *hustings*, *measles*, *nuptials*, *proceeds*, *statistics*, *thanks*, *virtuals*, and names of articles consisting of two parts united : as, *scissors*, *tongs*, *pincers*.

(12). A few nouns plural in form, or apparently so, are treated as singular ; as, *news*, *gallows*, *molasses*, and *summons*, the last of which has a regular plural, *summonses*. A few others are treated as singular or plural according to the connection in which we use them ; as, *innings*, *means*, *odds*, *tidings*, *wages*, and most words in *ies*.

Thus we say,

"Another *innings*," or "After five *innings*."
"By this *means*," or "By these *means*."

"Mathematics counts more than *classics*," but "The second year's *mathematics* are harder."

On the other hand, *alms* and *riches*, which are singular in origin, are now generally treated as plural ; as,

Riches do not always bring happiness.

(13). Proper nouns, abstract nouns, and names of materials do not usually take a plural ; as, *Whittier*, *England*, *Quebec*, *ignorance*, *piety*, *milk*, *grease*.

If, however, we have occasion to speak of persons or places bearing the same name we may pluralize proper nouns, and in such cases we

simply add *s*, unless where *es* is required to make an additional syllable. Thus we say "the Henrys," "the Wolfs," "the Catos," "the Churches."

So, too, if abstract nouns or names of materials are used to mean different instances or kinds of a thing, or articles made of a thing, they may take a plural; as, "one of his wise *sayings*," "these *vices*," "he measured several *lengths* of it," "a fresh stock of *teas*," "gather up the *tins* and *irons*."

EXERCISE XXXVI.

I. Write the proper plural of each of the following:

1. Daisy, Mary, valley, fly, echo, two, motto, hoof, thief, belief.
2. Mr., g, pailful, simile, alkali, omnibus, Hindoo, patriarch, extra, turf.
3. By-stander, brother-in-law, mouse-trap, poet-laureate, maid-servant, mermaid, maid of honor, passer-by, lieutenant-colonel, Q.C.
4. Larva, terminus, genus, asylum, tableau, opera, series, crisis, Mrs., bureau.
5. Volcano, sheaf, Norman, man-of-war, suratum, goose, spoonful, B.A., dwarf, drama.

II. Of what number is each of the following:

Phenomena, measles, molasses, politics, news, rabbi, banditti, sixpence, species, poultry.

CASE.

92. Besides being inflected for number, nouns and some pronouns undergo another change of form, of which we shall now speak.

If we look at the sentences,

He had forgotten *his* book and I sent *him* back for it,

we see that *he* changes to *his* and *him*, and that as all three forms refer to the same person the change cannot be for number. If we examine the sentence further, and compare it with some others in which the same pronouns are used; as,

He told me so. *His* nose was bleeding. The ball had struck *him*. I spoke to *him*.

we shall see that it is the relation which the pronouns bear to other words in the sentence that determines the form to be used. Thus we find that *he* is used as the subject of a

verb; *his* is used with a noun when we wish to mark the ownership or possession of something, and *him* is used as the object of a verb or of a preposition.

We find, too, from examining the following examples:

Who lives there? *Whose* knife is this? *Whom* do you want? To *whom* did you give it?

that the same distinction holds true in regard to the use of the pronouns *who*, *whose*, and *whom*.

There are other relations in which pronouns may stand to other words, but as they do not involve any change of form we shall confine our attention for the present to the three of which we have spoken.

The three forms that express these relations are known in grammar as **Cases**. The form used to represent the subject is called the **Nominative**, or naming case; that which marks ownership is called the **Possessive** case, and that which stands as the object of a verb or preposition is called the **Objective** case.

93. Now, if we put nouns in the place of the pronouns which we used in (92); as,

The boy told me so. The boy's nose was bleeding. The ball had struck the boy. I spoke to the boy.

we see that nouns have only two separate forms, and, therefore, strictly speaking, only *two cases*, the objective being the same in form as the nominative.

It is convenient, however, to use the same terms in speaking of nouns as we do in speaking of pronouns, and therefore it is usual to say that nouns have three cases, nominative, possessive, and objective.

THE POSSESSIVE CASE.

94. If we observe the following examples:

A man's voice. Several men's hats. This child's toy. These children's toys.

we see that the possessive case is formed by adding an apostrophe and *s* to the nominative.

If, however, as is usually the case, the nominative plural ends in *s*, only the apostrophe is added; as,

Those boys' caps. Several ladies' dresses.

In compound words the *'s* is added to the end of the word; as,

Her son-in-law's farm. The Duke of Wellington's army.

So, too, we say,

My *Uncle William's* horse. Call at *Smith the tailor's*.

and even, especially in conversational English,

A *day or two's* delay. *Somebody else's* hat. He lives in *what do you call him's* house.

treating the italicized part as if it were a single noun.

If a noun has two separate *s* sounds in the nominative we usually add only an apostrophe. Thus we say "for *pity's* sake," but "for *conscience's* sake"; "James's reign," but "Moses' words." We say, however, "his mistress's orders," "the princess's illness," although it is better perhaps for the sake of sound to avoid the possessive of such words and say "the illness of the princess."

95. The possessive case is rarely used except in speaking of living creatures, or of things that are or may be personified; in speaking of other things we generally express the idea of possession by using the preposition *of* with the objective. Thus we say:

"Women's hats," "a wolf's teeth," "birds' nests," "England's heroes," "nature's laws," "the sun's rays," "a ship's timbers," "the law's delay," "duty's call"; but "the rafters of the house," "the leaves of the book," "the streets of the village," "the color of her hair."

The possessive is, however, regularly used with nouns denoting time; as,

"Two years' interest," "ten days' notice," "an hour's rest," "a moment's warning."

In writing such expressions we must be careful neither to omit nor to misplace the apostrophe.

EXERCISE XXXVII.

I. Write sentences using the possessive singular of *woman*, *hero*, *gipsy*, *Thomas*, *Mr. Brown*, *actress*.

II. Write sentences using the possessive plural of *negro, thief, fisherman, German, mouse, fairy, attorney, brother-in-law, princess, chief.*

III. Change the following so as to use a possessive :

"A delay of ten minutes," "pay for a month," "the horns of the oxen," "for the sake of justice," "the tails of the monkeys," "the wisdom of Socrates," "the poems of Burns," "the opinion of the Attorney-General."

IV. Distinguish between "Call at Brown and Taylor's" and "Call at Brown's and Taylor's"; "the lion's cage" and "the lions' cage."

96. We have now said all that seems necessary in regard to the classification and inflections of nouns. We may add, however, that the term **declension** is often applied to the inflections of nouns and pronouns, and that giving these in regular order is called **declining** the noun or pronoun.

Thus if we are asked to decline the nouns *man* and *lady* we may write down our answer as follows :

	Singular.	Plural.	Singular.	Plural.
<i>Nom. and Obj.</i>	man	men	lady	ladies
<i>Poss.</i>	man's	men's	lady's	ladies'

97. We have also learned the following facts about the relations of these cases, whether of nouns or pronouns :

- (1). The nominative is used as the subject of a verb.
- (2). The objective is used as the object of certain verbs, and also of prepositions.
- (3). The possessive is used to limit the application of another noun by denoting possession.

Observe that the noun which the possessive limits is sometimes omitted, especially in conversation; as, "Call at Robinson's (store, shop, office, etc.,) on your way back."

The other relations of nouns and pronouns will be dealt with in Part III.

98. By **Parsing** a word we mean classifying it as a part of speech, accounting for its inflection if it has any, and showing in what relation it stands to some other word or words in the sentence.

At this stage the parsing of nouns may be written as follows, care being taken to adhere always to the same order as far as possible:

Mary took her brother's books to Toronto.

<i>Mary,</i>	Noun, proper, feminine gender, singular number, and nominative case, subject of the verb <i>took</i> .
<i>brother's,</i>	Noun, common, masculine gender, singular number, and possessive case, limiting <i>books</i> .
<i>books,</i>	Noun, common, plural number, and objective case, after the verb <i>took</i> .
<i>Toronto,</i>	Noun, proper, singular number, and objective case, after the preposition <i>to</i> .

EXERCISE XXXVIII.

I. Parse the nouns in the following sentences:

1. I will give this copy of Longfellow's poems to the winner.
 2. The boys left their slates on the teacher's desk. 3. The sidewalk was blocked with babies' carriages. 4. Leave this parcel at your uncle's on your way to school. 5. In my father's house are many mansions.

6. And to the hilt his vengeful sword
 He plunged in Gelert's side.

II. Correct any errors you see in the form of the nouns in the following, and give reasons for the changes you make:

1. He could not agree with his two brother-in-laws. 2. Who are the attornies engaged in the suit? 3. He was owing his landlord three month's rent. 4. For mercy sake don't let her know about it. 5. They kept coming in two's and three's. 6. He took nearly two spoonsful of it.

PRONOUNS.

99. Before dealing with the classification and inflection of pronouns let us recall the most important facts that we learned in Part I. regarding words of this class.

(1). Pronouns are substitutes for nouns, employed either to avoid the repetition of names already used, or to show without naming who or what is meant.

(2). As they have no definite meaning of their own, and as the most of them can be applied to a great many different persons or things the number required is small, and it is fixed.

(3). A number of pronouns have a sort of two-fold character, some serving partly as adjectives and partly as pronouns, and others serving the purpose of conjunctions as well as of pronouns.

100. We noticed also that some pronouns, as *I*, *me*, always refer to the person speaking; others, as *thou*, *you*, to the person spoken to, and others, again, as *he*, *she*, to the person spoken of. This distinction is known as a difference of **person**, and, as we shall see, a similar distinction is found to some extent in verbs also; as,

<i>I am here.</i>	<i>Thou art able.</i>	<i>He is sorry.</i>
<i>I see him.</i>	<i>Thou seest us.</i>	<i>He sees it.</i>

Those pronouns or forms of verbs that refer to the speaker are said to be of the **First** person; those referring to the person spoken to are of the **Second** person, and all others are said to be of the **Third** person.

The name **Personal Pronouns** has been given to pronouns of the first and second persons.

101. Besides these it is customary to make four other classes of pronouns, namely, **Demonstrative, Interrogative, Conjunctive, and Indefinite.**

102. The following are all the forms of the personal pronouns now in use.

	FIRST PERSON.		SECOND PERSON.	
	Singular.	Plural.	Singular.	Plural.
<i>Nominative</i>	I.	we.	thou, you.	ye, you.
<i>Possessive</i>	my, mine.	our, ours.	{ thy, thine,	your, yours.
<i>Objective</i>	me.	us.	{ your, yours.	
			thee, you.	you.

103. With regard to the use of these forms the following facts require to be carefully noted.

(1). As the sex of the speaker and of the person spoken to is supposed to be known these pronouns do not change their form for gender, and hence in parsing their gender need not be mentioned.

(2). The forms *thou*, *thy*, *thine*, *thee*, are, except among Quakers, no longer in common use, but are almost entirely confined to prayer and poetry; as,

We thank *Thee*, that *Thou* hast revealed *Thy* will to us.
 Hail to *thee*, blithe spirit,
 Bird *thou* never wert.

(3). Even when addressing one person *you* requires the verb to be in the plural form when that is different from the singular; as,

Were (not was) you at the concert, Jack?

Ye is confined now to poetry and to legal notices.

(4). The plural forms *we*, *our*, *ours*, *us*, are used for the corresponding singular ones in royal proclamations and editorial articles. Thus the Queen says,

We enjoin all *our* loyal subjects, etc.,

and an editor writes,

We think *our* readers will agree with *us*.

Observe that *we* is not, strictly speaking, a plural of *I*, but means *I and you*; as,

When shall *we* meet again?

or *I and some third person or persons*; as,

When shall *we* call for you?

In other words *we* may represent any number of persons as long as the speaker is one of them.

(5). The possessive forms, especially the short ones, are now commonly classed as **Pronominal Adjectives**, but as they are always equivalent in use to nouns in the possessive case, and as they are sometimes used, as we shall show in Part III., with a real pronominal value, they may be parsed as personal pronouns in the possessive case.

(6). Observe, however, that the noun is never expressed after *ours* and *yours*; and after *mine* and *thine*, only when the next word begins with a vowel sound; as,

Mine hour is not yet come. Thine eyes have seen us.

104. In such a sentence, then, as,

She has no gloves, lend her yours; mine are too small.

yours and *mine* may be parsed as pronominal adjectives used as nouns, *yours* being in the objective case after the verb *lend*, and *mine* being the nominative case subject of

the verb *are*; or as personal pronouns in the possessive case limiting the noun *gloves* understood. We must be careful, however, *not to call them personal pronouns in the objective or nominative.*

DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

105. The demonstrative pronouns, which are so called because they serve to point out or call attention to the persons or things they represent, are all of the third person. The following tables show all the different forms now in use, and the distinctions for gender, number, and case.

Those in the first table are very often called *Personal Pronouns of the Third Person.*

	Mas.	Singular. Fem.	Neu.	Plural. M. F. N.
(a). <i>Nominative</i>	he	she	it	they
<i>Possessive</i>	his	her, hers	its	their, theirs
<i>Objective</i>	him	her	it	them

	Singular. M. F. N.	Plural. M. F. N.
(b). <i>Nominative</i> }	this	these
<i>Objective</i> }		
<i>Nominative</i> }	that	those
<i>Objective</i> }		

106. With regard to the use of these forms the following facts are to be carefully noted:

(1). What we said of the possessive forms of the personal pronouns (103, 5) applies also to those in (a).

(2). Observe that the possessive forms *ours*, *yours*, *hers*, *its*, *theirs*, do not take an apostrophe.

(3). *Its*, though now in common use, is a word of late introduction into the language, not being found, for instance, in the authorized English version of the Bible. Instead of it *his*, *of it*, *thereof* and other words were used; as,

If the salt have lost *his* savor, etc.

(4). The pronoun *it*, besides taking the place of a noun already used; as,

I lent him my *knife* and he lost *it*,

or representing something indicated but not named; as,

Look at *that*, isn't *it* pretty?

has some special uses which we shall mention and illustrate.

(a). It is used as a **Representative Subject**, that is, to represent a phrase or a clause which would otherwise be the subject; as,

It is not fair to say that. It is strange that we have not heard from him.

Somewhat similar to this is its use in the sense of *the person or thing*, even referring to a plural, in such sentences as the following :

It is you that is to blame. It was the rats that did it. It was the frost that killed it.

(b). It is used as an **Impersonal Subject**, that is, it does not stand for anything that we can name, but it enables us to make an assertion without reference to any particular subject; as,

It had rained all day. It was growing dark.

(c). It is used similarly as an **Impersonal Object**; as,

They'll have to rough it for a while. He lorded it over them. We had to foot it all the way.

(5). The demonstratives *this, these; that, those*, are also, as we have seen, used as adjectives. Whether used as adjectives or as pronouns *this* and *these* usually refer to things near at hand or last mentioned; *that* and *those* to things at a distance or first mentioned; as,

(a).	Adj.	Take <i>this</i> chair.	Pick up <i>these</i> books.
	Pron.	<i>This</i> is my brother.	Where did you get <i>these</i> ?

(b).	Adj.	Shut <i>that</i> door.	Who are <i>those</i> people?
	Pron.	<i>That</i> is my aunt.	<i>Those</i> in the back seats may go.

And reason raise o'er instinct as you can,
In this (i.e., instinct) 'tis God directs, in that (i.e., reason) 'tis man.

(6). *That* and sometimes *this* may stand for a fact mentioned in a preceding clause; as,

He missed his lesson; *that* is why I kept him. They are both well qualified, and *this* makes it harder to decide.

This may also refer to something not yet mentioned; as,

Listen to *this*, will you? Of *this* I feel certain, that he will never return.

COMPOUND PERSONAL AND DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

107. From the pronouns already mentioned we have the following compounds:

<i>Singular</i>	myself	thysself, yourself	himself, herself, itself.
<i>Plural</i>	ourselves	yourselves	themselves.

These are used only in the nominative and objective. When in the nominative they are used for **emphasis** along with the simple forms; as,

I myself saw it done. They did that themselves.

When in the objective case they generally have a **reflexive** ("bending back") force, that is they show that the object represents the same person or thing as the subject; as,

He cut himself. You are deceiving yourselves.

Sometimes, however, they are used in the objective for emphasis; as,

I met your mother herself. That will benefit no one but himself.

Observe that the simple forms are sometimes used reflexively, especially in poetry; as,

Now I lay *me* down to sleep.

108. The word *own* is added to the possessive forms of the simple pronouns to add emphasis, or a reflexive force; as,

Why don't you use your own book? His speech will injure his own party.

109. The following cautions may be necessary for some pupils.

(1). Don't use *hissself* or *theirselves* for *himself* or *themselves*.

(2). Don't use *them* for *these* or *those*. Thus don't say, "Pick up *them* books."

(3). Don't use the compound form if the simple will do. Say "My wife and *I* (not *myself*) can't agree on one."

110. Personal and demonstrative pronouns may be parsed as follows:

You gave these to her yourself in my presence.

you, Personal pronoun, second person, singular number, and nominative case, subject of the verb *gave*.

<i>these,</i>	Demonstrative pronoun, plural number, and objective case, object of the verb <i>gave</i> .
<i>her,</i>	Demonstrative pronoun, feminine gender, singular number, and objective case, object of the preposition <i>to</i> .
<i>yourself,</i>	Compound personal pronoun, second person, singular number, and nominative case, used with <i>you</i> for emphasis.
<i>my,</i>	Pronominal possessive adjective, modifying the noun <i>presence</i> ; (or, personal pronoun, first person, singular number, and possessive case, limiting the noun <i>presence</i>).

EXERCISE XXXIX.

I. Parse the personal and demonstrative pronouns in the following :

1. He asked us to call at their office. 2. I found this lying on your table when we came back. 3. She left her own gloves and took mine. 4. They can easily do that. 5. Take his knife, yours is not sharp enough. 6. Lead thou me on.

II. Select the demonstrative pronouns, and tell, if possible, what each stands for :

1. It is your duty to do so. 2. There has been some mistake ; that is evident. 3. Now mind this, you will not have another chance. 4. It is not likely that he will tell you. 5. Your work is not so well done as that of the rest. 6. It is wrong ; anyone can see that.

III. Select the compound personal, and demonstrative pronouns, and tell whether they are used reflexively or for emphasis :

1. The boys were amusing themselves. 2. She made that dress herself. 3. Be sure you give it to the doctor himself. 4. I want that for myself. 5. He will have to do that himself.

IV. Correct any errors in the pronouns in the following :

1. Their's is larger than our's. 2. Tell them boys to keep quiet. 3. They may do it theirselves if they like. 4. I met Mrs. A. and himself down at the wharf. 5. That little boy will cut hissself with that knife.

INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

111. Some pronouns are used at the beginning of sentences to ask questions, and are therefore called **Interrogative Pronouns**. These are *who* (with its possessive *whose* and objective *whom*), *which*, and *what*; as,

Who said so? Whose book is it? To whom did you give it? Which do you like best? What do you want?

112. With regard to their use the following facts should be carefully noted:

(1). *Who* is used in speaking of persons only, and is singular or plural; as,

Who is doing that? Who were absent this morning?

(2). *Which* is used of both persons and things, and is singular or plural; as,

Which of you wrote it? Which are yours?

(3). *What* is ordinarily used of things, and of creatures other than human, and is generally singular; as,

What has happened? What is making that noise?

(4). *Who* and *what* ask a question in the most general form, while *which* limits it to certain persons or things, and asks us to *select* one or more from the number.

(5). *Which* and *what* may also be used as adjectives; as,

Which house do they live in? What answer do you get?

It is proper also to regard *what* as a predicate adjective in sentences like the following:

What is he? What are your views?

(6). In older English we sometimes find *whether* used as an interrogative pronoun; as,

Whether is greater, the gold or the temple?

but it is not used in that way now. Modern usage makes it a conjunction, and would write the sentence thus,

Whether is the gold or the temple greater?

or else substitute the pronoun *which*; as,

Which is greater, the gold or the temple?

CONJUNCTIVE PRONOUNS.

113. We saw in Part I. that certain pronouns serve not merely as substitutes for nouns but also as connectives for clauses. Thus in the sentence:

I called a policeman, who arrested the fellow,

it is plain that *who* is equal not merely to *he* but to *and he*.

Again, if we take the sentence:

I made him an offer, but he rejected it,

we may by substituting *which* for *but it* and rearranging, if necessary, do without the conjunction; as,

I made him an offer, which he rejected; or, He rejected the offer which I made him.

From this peculiarity of joining clauses such pronouns are called **Conjunctive Pronouns**. The noun or pronoun to which the conjunctive refers and joins its clause is called the **Antecedent** ("going before"), because it is usually in a clause preceding the conjunctive.

114. Conjunctive pronouns are also called **Relative** pronouns, but as relative simply means "carrying back" the mind to the antecedent it is not so good a name, because all pronouns *relate*, and because it does not mark the distinguishing feature of these pronouns, namely, the power of connecting clauses. Thus we may say that *he* in the example given above is *relative*, for it carries the mind back to *policeman*; but it does not bind the clauses together as *who* does, and is, therefore, not conjunctive.

115. The conjunctive pronouns, which as connective words naturally stand at the beginning of their clauses, are *who* (possessive *whose*, objective *whom*), *which*, *that*, *what*, and sometimes *as* and *but*.

116. *Who*, (*whose*, *whom*), is applied only to persons, or to creatures or things called by proper names or otherwise spoken of as persons, and may be either singular or plural; as,

His father, who is a trustee, spoke to me about it. The boys whose names I have read out will remain. Ponto, whom I had brought with me, began to growl.

Whose is sometimes used of things (as a possessive of *which*) even when they are not personified, but it is usually better to say *of which*; as,

It was an act the consequences of which (rather than *whose consequences*) could not be foreseen.

117. *Which* is used of things, animals (other than human beings), young children, whose sex is not indicated, and of groups of persons regarded as units, and may be either singular or plural; as,

Here is the money which he gave me. He shot the dog which had done it. She ran to the child, which was beginning to cry. The committee which was appointed to consider the matter has sent in its report.

Formerly, however, *which* was freely applied to persons. Thus in the authorized version of the Bible we often find such expressions as,

A certain *creditor which* had two debtors, etc. Then the *Jews which* were with him, etc.

Sometimes *which* has for its antecedent the fact mentioned in the preceding clause; as,

They are both absent, *which* looks suspicious.

Sometimes, too, it is used as an adjective, though still retaining its conjunctive force; as,

Several years passed away, during *which* (and during this) time many changes took place.

118. *That* may refer to either persons or things, and may be either singular or plural. Hence it should be used when there are two antecedents, one requiring *who* and the other *which*; as,

There are the *man* and the *horse* that we passed this morning.

It should also be preferred to *who* or *which* after the superlative degree of an adjective; as,

He was the *wisest* man *that* ever lived. This is the *coldest* day *that* we have had yet.

and, generally speaking, in all cases in which the clause is intended to *restrict* or limit the application of the antecedent to a particular member of a class of objects.

119. Observe that the case of the conjunctive is determined not by the antecedent, but by some word in its own clause. *The conjunctive and the antecedent must be in different clauses.*

120. *What* differs from the other conjunctives in having no antecedent, except in a few rare and old fashioned constructions. From this fact it is commonly called an **Indefinite** conjunctive. The following are examples of its use :

What can't be cured must be endured. He told them what he had heard. He gave us an account of what he had seen.

As many pupils find difficulty in dealing with the conjunctive *what* it may help them to notice that, as commonly used,

(a). It is equivalent in meaning to *that which*.

(b). The clause *which* it begins is a noun clause, and has the same relation and case as the *that* would have.

(c). The *what* has the same relation and case as the *which* would have.

121. In some cases, however, as,

It is hard to tell what may happen,

it is scarcely possible to determine absolutely whether the *what* should be regarded as an *Indefinite Conjunctive* or as a *Dependent Interrogative*. Either view may, therefore, be allowed in such cases.

In such sentences as,

I know whom you mean. He would not tell which did it.

the *whom* and *which* are sometimes classed as indefinite conjunctives having no antecedent, but it is better to regard them as dependent interrogatives.

122. The conjunctives, *who*, *whom*, *which*, and *that* are very often omitted, especially in colloquial English, when they are in the objective case, and occasionally, too, in the nominative; as,

(a). *Objective*. Who is that girl (whom) we passed? Here is the book (which) you lent me. Show me the tree (that) it grew on. Give this to the boy (that) you sit with.

(b). *Nominative*. Here's a boy (who) can tell us all about it. It was that (which) made me suspect him.

We can even drop out the preposition as well as the conjunctive after certain antecedents; as,

He left the very day (on which) you came. That isn't the way (in which) he did it.

The dropping out of the preposition is probably due to the fact that when the conjunctive *that* is governed by a preposition, the latter must stand at the end of the clause,

and hence, being wholly without emphasis, is more readily omitted; as,

That's the very reason (*that*) I wanted it (*for*).

AS AND BUT.

123. *As* may be treated as a conjunctive pronoun in the following cases:

(1). When it follows *such* and *same*; as,

Bring such books as you have. He had the same chance as the rest had.

(2). When it is equivalent to *which* or *and this*, and has for its antecedent something stated or assumed in another clause; as,

He had done this before, as is shown by the evidence. If you find it, as is quite probable, let me know.

The *as* clause may be inserted in the other clause, or may even precede it; as,

The Mayor, as we all know, has refused to act. As might have been expected, several are missing.

124. The word *but* is sometimes equivalent to a conjunctive pronoun and *not*, and is, therefore, in such cases often called a **Negative Conjunctive**; as,

There is not one of you *but* would (*who would not*) jump at the chance. There wasn't a house in town *but* had (*which had not*) one of them.

COMPOUND CONJUNCTIVES.

125. There are some compound forms, namely, *whoever*, *whichever*, *whatever*; and in older English *whosoever*, *whichsoever*, *whatsoever*, which resemble *what* in having no antecedent; as,

Whoever wishes may have this copy. Take whichever you like best. I will agree to whatever he proposes. It is a good knife, whosoever it is. Whosoever hateth his brother is a murderer.

Sometimes, especially in older English, they refer to a pronoun in the following clause; as,

Whosoever will let *him* come.

126. The following vulgarisms in the use of conjunctives and interrogatives are to be carefully avoided:

(a). The use of *as* and *what* for *who*; as,

People *as* say such things ought to be punished. The boy *what* did that had better look out.

- (b). The use of *whatever* for *what*; as,
Whatever did you do that for?

INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

127. Besides the four classes of pronouns that we have now considered, there are a number of words which are used at times as pronouns, though more commonly as adjectives. These are usually classed together as **Indefinite** pronouns, because they do not indicate definitely what persons or things are meant. The commonest of them are *some, any, all, none, both, one, such, same, other, another, each, either, neither*, and some compounds; as, *each other, one another, everyone, anybody, something*.

The following are examples of their use:

One hardly knows where to find *any* now. *All* voted that *both* should go. *Each* thought *another* should be sent. *Somebody* took it.

128. The most important facts to be noted in regard to their use are,

(1). *One, other, and another* may be used in the possessive case, and the first two of them in the plural; as,

It tries *one's* nerves to do that. *Others* may think differently. We saw an old bird and two young *ones*.

(2). *Each, everyone, either* and *neither* make us think of things separately, and are, therefore, sometimes called **Distributives**. They are always regarded as singular, and *either* and *neither* should be used only when speaking of two objects; as,

Each of the competitors *was* allowed two trials. *Neither* of the two girls *was* at school to-day.

Either is sometimes wrongly used for *each*; as,

There was a row of elms on *either* side of the lane.

Each other and *one another* are now generally regarded as compounds, though they may be treated as separate words. They are sometimes called **Reciprocal** pronouns.

Each other is to be preferred in speaking of two; *one another*, of more than two; as,

These two women are jealous of *each other*. Children soon get acquainted with *one another*.

Note the difference between *the other*, used in speaking of two, and *another*, of several; as,

He walked from one end of the hall to the other. They wandered from one place to another.

129. Interrogative, conjunctive, and indefinite pronouns may be parsed as follows:

Whom does it belong to? Do you know the girls whose names are in the list that he read out. Both were at school to-day, but I had no chance to speak to either.

<i>whom</i> ,	Interrogative pronoun, objective case, object of the preposition <i>to</i> .
<i>whose</i> ,	Conjunctive pronoun having <i>girls</i> for its antecedent, and possessive case limiting <i>names</i> .
<i>that</i> ,	Conjunctive pronoun, having <i>list</i> for its antecedent, and objective case, object of the verb <i>read</i> .
<i>both</i> ,	Indefinite pronoun, nominative case, subject of <i>were</i> .
<i>either</i>	Indefinite pronoun, distributive, objective case, object of the preposition <i>to</i> .

EXERCISE XL.

I. Combine each of the following pairs of sentences into a single sentence by using a conjunctive pronoun:

1. A little boy found it. This is the boy. 2. You want a book. Here it is. 3. That's the man. His horse ran away. 4. You were talking to a man just now. Tell me his name. 5. I wanted to know something. He told me it. 6. I gave him a knife. It cost me fifty cents.

II. Break up each of the following sentences into two, substituting demonstratives for the conjunctives:

1. Mr. Smith, who bought it, is a neighbor of ours. 2. A gentleman, whose name I have forgotten, gave it to me. 3. He brought back the books that he had borrowed. 4. The girl to whom I intended to give it is not here. 5. I could not hear what he said.

III. Supply conjunctive pronouns in the following, and tell the case of each:

1. This is all I have. 2. I remember the day it happened. 3. Is that the book you were looking for? 4. He died the year you were born. 5. It was you led me to think so.

IV. Parse the conjunctive pronouns in the following:

1. He built the house that you live in. 2. There are only three boys whose names I don't know. 3. The people whom we met were very kind. 4. He showed me what he had done. 5. You can't believe the half of what is told you. 6. You may pick such as are ripe. 7. He has the same answer as you got. 8. There was not a boy in the class but had heard about it.

V. Parse the interrogative pronouns :

1. Who told you that? 2. What did he say to you? 3. Which of them did you get it from? 4. Whose turn is it? 5. Whom are you writing to?

VI. Parse the indefinite pronouns in the following :

1. He gave those questions to each. 2. Some were better than others. 3. He offered to take both. 4. One hardly knows how to act. 5. Neither of them offered to bring any.

6. Then none was for a party,
And all were for the state.

VII. Select all the pronouns in the following story, classify each, and tell in what case it is and why :

"We are told that the mice once held a meeting to consider what they should do to save themselves from the cat. Several suggested plans, but none of these seemed satisfactory. At last it was proposed to hang a bell to the cat's neck so that when she was coming they would hear her and could run to their holes. This seemed to meet the approval of all till an old mouse, that had not spoken before, asked who would put the bell on her."

VIII. Correct any errors in the following, giving reasons :

1. Neither of the three boys had seen it. 2. Some of the men which were working in the drain had a narrow escape. 3. This is the best specimen which I have found yet. 4. These two boys are always quarrelling with one another. 5. Have either of you boys a spare pencil? 6. He walked back and forward from one end of the room to another. 7. Any boy what likes to do so may try for the prize. 8. His horse, who was hitched to the fence, got frightened. 9. Whatever were you thinking of? 10. Tell us about some of the persons and things which you saw at the Fair.

ADJECTIVES.

130. We learned in Part I. that adjectives are words whose chief use is to modify nouns, that is, to limit their application. This limiting, however, may be done in different ways, and accordingly if we examine a considerable number of adjectives we shall find that, like nouns and pronouns, they may be divided into different classes.

For instance, when we talk of "clever girls," "brave soldiers," "tall trees," "Canadian cheese," "wooden handles," "severe pains," it is plain that the adjective in each case modifies the noun by limiting its application to persons or things possessing a certain quality or nature. Adjectives of this sort, then, which may be said to answer the question "of what sort," are called adjectives of **Quality**, or **Qualifying** adjectives.

Those that have been formed from names of persons or places, or that have come to be applied only to particular persons or places, are called **Proper** adjectives, and should always be written with a capital; as, *French, Chinese, Victorian, Methodist.*

131. Again, if we speak of "several boys," "much trouble," "five dollars," "no mistakes," "second choice," "last week," we see that the adjective modifies the noun by telling how much or how many of anything we are referring to, or in what order a thing comes. Adjectives of this sort are called adjectives of **Quantity**, or **Quantifying** adjectives.

Under the head of adjectives of quantity we include what are known as **Numeral** adjectives. These are subdivided into

Definite numerals, consisting of

(a). Cardinals; as, *two, ten, forty.*

(b). Ordinals; as, *second, tenth, fortieth.*

Indefinite numerals; as, *many, all, both.*

132. Lastly, we have, as we saw in speaking of pronouns, a considerable number of words which may be used as pronouns, but which, when used with nouns, are commonly classed as **Pronominal Adjectives**.

These are often subdivided into other groups; viz.,

Possessive; as, *my, your, its, their.*

Demonstrative; as, *this, that, yon.*

Interrogative; as, *which, what.*

Distributive; as, *each, either.*

Indefinite; as, *all, some, both.*

It will be noticed that the **Indefinites** may be classed either as adjectives of quantity or as pronominal adjectives.

133. Observe that *this* and *that* have plural forms, *these* and *those*.—the only instance in which English adjectives are now inflected for number; and be careful to avoid the very common mistake of using the plural for the singular before the words *kind of, sort of*; as,

I don't like these sort of pens. These kind of people are always making trouble.

Observe that the mistake is usually made when a plural noun follows. Thus, while many will say "those sort of *pears*," few will say "those sort (or kind) of *fruit*."

ARTICLES.

134. The adjectives *a*, *an*, and *the* were formerly classed as a separate part of speech and known as **Articles**; and, as they are still frequently referred to by that name, and some special cautions are required in regard to their use, we shall deal with them separately.

135. *An* and *a*, which are in reality only shortened forms of *one*, and can be used, therefore, only with singular nouns, are employed in speaking of

(a). A certain one of a class, not named or specially pointed out; as,

I bought this from a peddler. An eagle had carried it off.

(b). Any one whatever of a class; as,

Bring me a nail. Give me an apple.

Hence the name **Indefinite** articles was given to them

An is used before a word beginning with a vowel sound; as "an egg," "an hour."

A is used before a word beginning with a consonant sound; as "a book," "a hen," "a European," "a ewe," "many a one," "a unit."

An is preferred by many good writers before an *aspirate h*, that is, an *h* sounded, if the word is accented on the second syllable; as "an hereditary prince," "such an hypothesis."

136. *The* is used to draw attention to

(a). A whole class; as,

The fox is noted for its cunning. The rose is her favorite flower.

(b). A particular one of a class; as,

He shot the fox that had been stealing his chickens. I have kept the rose that you gave me.

Hence it was called the **Definite** article.

The may be used before any noun; as "the boy," "the honor," "the houses," "the apples."

In cases like the following:

I like it *the* better on that account. *The* higher you go *the* colder it gets.

the is an adverb, and meant originally *by that*.

137. Observe that *a* (or *an*) or *the* must be repeated if we are speaking of two objects; as,

The chairman and the secretary are in their places.

So "a red and white cow" means one cow, but "a red and a white cow," two cows.

Custom has sanctioned, however, such expressions as "the first and second volumes," "the third and fourth storeys."

Be careful not to insert *a* or *an* after *sort of*, *kind of*, *by the name of*.

Thus, do not say,

What sort of *a* house is it? It is some kind of *a* hawk. This officer was known by the name of *a* dictator.

COMPARISON.

138. If we look at such examples as "a tall man," "a tall woman," "in tall trees," "a tall man's coat," etc., we see that an adjective does not, as it once did in English, and does in many other languages, change its form for gender, number, or case. The only exception is that, as we mentioned (133), the adjectives *this* and *that* have plural forms.

Many adjectives of quality do, however, undergo a change of form peculiar to this part of speech, and to a few adverbs. Thus, if we are looking at a number of lines we may say that one of them is *long* or *short*, that another is *longer* or *shorter*, and that some other one is the *longest* or the *shortest*.

This change, which we make in the form of adjectives when we are comparing objects with reference to the extent or *degree* to which they possess a certain quality or property, is spoken of as **Comparison**.

139. Properly speaking there are only two degrees of comparison, but it has been customary to consider the simple form of the adjective, as *long*, *short*, one also, and to call it the **Positive** degree.

The form in *er*, as *longer*, *shorter*, which is used to show that an object has a quality or property in a higher or greater degree than some other object or group of objects is called the **Comparative** degree.

The comparative degree is also used in comparing a thing with itself under other circumstances; as,

It is *stronger* now than it was before.

The form in *est*, as *longest*, *shortest*, which is used to show that an object has a quality or property in the greatest degree of all the objects included in the comparison, is called the **Superlative** degree.

When we name these three forms of an adjective in order we are said to *compare the adjective*; as, positive, *strong*; comparative, *stronger*; superlative, *strongest*.

140. In forming the comparative and superlative of adjectives observe:

(1). If the adjective ends in *e* we add only *r* and *st*; as, *large*, *larger*, *largest*.

(2). If it ends in *y* preceded by a consonant, we change the *y* into *i* before *er* and *est*; as, *dry*, *drier*, *driest*.

(3). If it ends in a single consonant preceded by a single vowel we double the consonant before *er* and *est*; as, *hot*, *hotter*, *hottest*; *thin*, *thinner*, *thinnest*.

141. Not all adjectives, however, can be thus compared.

(1). Only adjectives that express a quality which may be spoken of as existing in different degrees admit of comparison. Hence neither numeral nor pronominal adjectives can be compared, nor such qualifying adjectives as, *Canadian*, *wooden*, *triangular*, *dead*, *universal*.

(2). Only adjectives of one syllable and a few of those in two syllables, chiefly adjectives ending in *y*, *le*, *er*, can be compared by adding *er* and *est*; as,

Lazy, lazier, laziest. Simple, simpler, simplest. Tender, tenderer, tenderest. Pleasant, pleasanter, pleasantest.

Other adjectives which denote qualities that admit of comparison are compared by prefixing *more* and *most*; as,

Famous, more famous, most famous. Wonderful, more wonderful, most wonderful.

In the case of adjectives of two syllables it is the sound that must determine whether to use *er* and *est* or *more* and *most*. In some cases either form is quite proper; as.

Nothing can be *commoner* (or *more common*). He is the *politest* (or *most polite*) boy in the room.

142. The term *comparison* is sometimes still further extended to include,

(a). The use of *less* and *least* like *more* and *most*; as,

This method is less expensive. That was the least profitable of all his schemes.

(b). The use of *as* or *so* followed by *as*; as,

It is *as* strong now *as* it was before. It is not *so* cold *as* it was yesterday.

Observe that *so* is usually preferred to *as* when the clause contains a negative.

IRREGULAR COMPARISON.

143. The following adjectives have irregularly formed comparatives and superlatives:

Positive.	Comparative.	Superlative.
good	better	best
bad (evil) (ill)	worse	worst
much (many)	more	most
little	less	least
fore	{ former	{ foremost, first
	{ further	{ furthest
far	farther	farthest
late	later, latter	latest, last
old	older, elder	oldest, eldest
near	nearer	nearest, next

144. In regard to some of these forms observe:

(a). *Less* is used of quantity; *fewer* of number; as

“Less than a ton,” but “fewer than a dozen.”

(b). Prefer *farther* to express remoteness; *further* to imply something additional; as,

“He lives farther away,” but “I have nothing further to say.”

(c). Use *later* and *latest* of time; *last* of position; as,

“Have you heard the latest report?” “His name was last on the list.”

(d). *Elder* and *eldest* are confined to persons, usually to the same family, and are much less common than *older* and *oldest*, which may be applied to either persons or things.

145. The word *than*, which introduces clauses dependent on comparatives; as,

She is much taller *than* you are,

is sometimes called the *sign of the comparative*. Words like *superior*, *posterior*, *senior*, which are Latin comparatives, are not felt to be comparatives in English, and are followed by *to* and not by *than*; as,

This is stronger *than* that, and in every way superior *to* it.

It may be noticed that the comparative *elder* cannot now be followed by *than*.

146. The comparative degree is used in comparing *two* objects, the superlative in comparing more than two. Hence, say “Which is the *younger* (not youngest) of these two girls?”

The comparative *excludes all other objects*; the superlative *includes all*. Thus, we may select one of a number of oranges, and say,

This one is larger *than* the others (or *than* any of the others),
or, pointing to it, we may say,

This is the largest of all.

Hence, while we may say,

(a). John is younger *than* the other boys in the class,
comparing him with them collectively; or,

John is younger *than* any other boy in the class,
comparing him with them individually;

(b). John is the youngest of all the boys in the class.

We must be careful *not to say*,

John is younger *than* any boy in his class, or He is the youngest of any boy in his class, or (worse still) He is the youngest of any other boy in his class.

We must also guard against the common mistake of wrongly inserting *other* in such sentences; as,

You of all other boys ought not to complain. Of all other qualities of style, clearness is the most important.

when it is evident that "of all the boys," "of all the qualities" is what is meant.

147. Lastly, in making comparisons, be careful

(1). To avoid double comparatives or superlatives; as,

He made a *worser* mistake than that.

They are frequently found in older writers; as,

"the most unkindest cut of all,"

but they are not now permissible. The only exception, perhaps, is *lesser*, which may be said to be sanctioned in certain expressions, as "*lesser Asia*," "*the lesser stars*."

(2). To see that the comparison is made between the proper things. Thus do not say,

My *prices* are lower than any *grocer* in town. BUT My prices are lower than any other grocer's (prices), OR My prices are lower than those of any other grocer.

148. Adjectives may be parsed as follows:

Several candidates thought that this paper was easier.

several, Indefinite numeral (or pronominal) adjective, modifying the noun *candidates*.

this, Pronominal adjective, distributive, modifying the noun *paper*.

easier, Adjective of quality, comparative degree (*easy*, *easier*, *easiest*), modifying the noun *paper* predicatively.

EXERCISE XLI.

I. Parse the adjectives in the following sentences:

1. A careless workman nearly caused a serious accident in that way, one day. 2. Great riches often bring much care. 3. No other plan will be successful. 4. What answer did you get to the last question? 5. Those boys answered all the questions on the first paper. 6. We had to wait a long time in a cold room till he was ready to see us. 7. She is the best scholar in the French class. 8. Which church do these people go to? 9. The younger children seemed very happy. 10. Few people care to spend their time on such things.

II. Select from the following sentences:

- (a). Words that are usually adjectives but are here used as nouns;
 (b). Words that are used here as adjectives but that generally have some other value.

1. None but the brave deserve the fair. 2. He has put a wire fence around his flower garden. 3. They live in a small brick house on the corner lot. 4. The worst is over now. 5. The strong ought to aid the weak. 6. The church bell began to ring. 7. The above items are all correct. 8. He'll stick to them through thick and thin. 9. Did you look at the under side of it? 10. Ring out the false, ring in the true.

III. Compare such of the following as admit of comparison.

Ugly, gay, golden, worse, earnest, weekly, simple, last, several, little, vertical, cautious, sad, unanimous, next.

IV. Correct any errors in the use of adjectives, giving reasons:

1. What kind of a bird is that? 2. I can't work those sort of questions. 3. He can write the best composition of anybody in our class. 4. There must have been not less than twenty errors in his exercise. 5. He's the awkwardest looking fellow you ever saw. 6. Which is the shortest of the two routes? 7. There could not have been a more complete failure. 8. Of all other vices that is the hardest to deal with. 9. He ate nearly the third of it. 10. It claims to have the largest circulation of any other paper in the county.

VERBS.

149. We have already learned the following facts in regard to words of this class:

(1). A verb is a word which, either by itself or in conjunction with other words, forms the predicate of a sentence, and therefore there can be, in a grammatical sense, no sentence without a verb.

(2). Certain forms of the verb, however, known as Infinitives and Participles, such as *to see*, *having seen*, *having been seen*, cannot be used as predicates.

(3). For convenience we regard certain groups of two or more words often found in combination as equivalent to single words, and treat them as parts or forms of verbs, and this, too, even though other words may come between them; as,

He had been sent to school. They have recently begun to make it. Has it never been seen since that?

(4). The verb undergoes more changes of form than any other part of speech, and some of these changes depend on the person of the subject.

(5). Some verbs take an object after them, and this object, when it is a pronoun with different forms for the nominative and the objective, must be in the objective form; as, "He struck *me*." Hence these verbs are said to govern the objective case.

150. We shall now proceed to consider some other points in regard to Verbs.

TRANSITIVE AND INTRANSITIVE.

There are several ways of classifying verbs. One of these is based on the fact that we have just mentioned, namely, that some verbs take an object after them.

If we compare the sentences:

- (a). The boy broke the string. The boy ran away.
- (b). The birds build their nests. The birds sing sweetly.
- (c). The sun melts the snow. The sun rises in the east.

we see that in each sentence the verb expresses an action. In the first of each pair, however, the action directly affects an object, while in the other three it is confined to the person or thing represented by the subject.

Verbs used like *broke*, *build*, *melts* are called **Transitive**, because the action "passes across" to the object, while others used like *ran*, *sing*, *rises*, which are not followed by an object, but which express an action that is confined to the person or thing represented by the subject, are called **Intransitive**, or "not passing across."

This distinction, however, like many others in grammar, is not a permanent one, for many verbs may be used either transitively or intransitively. For instance, in the sentences:

The string broke. Snow melts in the sun.

the verbs *broke* and *melts* are used intransitively, the action being now attributed to what in the preceding examples were the objects.

So, too, we may say:

- Trans.* The wind blew my hat into the river.
- Intr.* The wind blew from the east.
- Trans.* He opened the door for me.
- Intr.* The door opened quietly.
- Trans.* They played several games.
- Intr.* They played till noon.

151. Observe that when we speak of action we include mental actions, feelings, and even the simple idea of possession. Thus in

He believes that story. I understand the explanation. She hates that sort of thing. He has two sisters.

we regard the verbs as transitive, and speak of the following nouns as their objects and as governed by them.

In the same way the term intransitive, which is properly applied only to verbs expressing action, has been extended to include verbs that merely denote state or existence; as,

He sleeps soundly. They seem tired. She remained silent. We were sorry for him.

Observe that we use the word *object* in a twofold sense. Thus the *thing* is the object of the *act*, but for convenience we speak of the noun or pronoun that represents the thing as the object of the verb that expresses the act.

THE PASSIVE VOICE.

152. It may be as well to notice here that transitive verbs can be used in another way, with a different set of forms. Thus we may say:

- (a). The cat catches the mice; or, The mice are caught by the cat.
- (b). The boys broke the windows; or, The windows were broken by the boys.
- (c). That dog will bite him; or, He will be bitten by that dog.

and the meaning will be the same, although expressed in a different manner.

Observe that in making the change the object becomes the subject, and the subject becomes the object of the preposition *by*.

Verb-forms like *are caught, was broken, will be bitten*, which are made up of some part of the verb *be* and what is called the *perfect participle* of another verb, and which are used when the object of the act is represented as *suffering* the act, are known in grammar as **Passive** ("suffering") forms, and are collectively said to make up the **Passive Voice**; while those representing the subject as *acting* are called **Active** forms and make up the **Active Voice**.

As intransitive verbs have no object, it is evident that they cannot be used in the passive voice, and it is unnecessary, therefore, in parsing them to speak of them as active.

153. We shall have something to say in Part III. about certain ways in which verbs that are usually intransitive may become transitive, but before leaving the subject here we may notice two advantages that we gain from having a passive voice.

(1). We are able to call attention to an act without mentioning the doer; as,

The letter was found in his possession.

(2). We can vary our ways of stating facts; as,

No one ever saw it. It was never seen by anyone.

EXERCISE XLII.

I. Say whether the verbs in the following sentences are transitive or intransitive, giving reasons:

1. He called at their office. 2. He called a meeting of the committee. 3. Take off your cap. 4. She rules over a vast empire. 5. He soon became a wealthy man. 6. The teacher rang the bell again. 7. Has the bell rung for recess? 8. A crowd gathered in front of the building. 9. He picked up the papers. 10. She went home at recess. 11. The weather grew cold and stormy. 12. He owns both these houses. 13. I felt very tired. 14. He felt a severe pain. 15. We know all our lessons.

II. Change the verbs in the following from active to passive, or passive to active:

1. One of the girls wrote that. 2. Their mother sends them to school regularly. 3. By whom was that done? 4. He will be overtaken by them. 5. She took three prizes. 6. Has anyone tried the plan? 7. All the cheese had been eaten by the mice. 8. We shall admit no one. 9. He was kept in by the teacher. 10. Did they do anything? 11. He was never seen again by anyone. 12. They often do such things.

III. Write sentences using the following verbs first as transitive then as intransitive:

sing, burn, hear, return, play, turn, move, speak, dress, change.

AUXILIARY VERBS.

154. Another classification of verbs is based on the fact that certain verbs, like *have* (*has, had*) *be* (*am, are, was, were*), are used sometimes by themselves and sometimes to make up certain forms of other verbs.

Thus, when we say :

He is here. She was alone. They were ready. He has a bicycle.
She had a sister. I have a watch.

we see that the six italicized words are the verbs of the sentences; while in the following :

He is sent to school. She was taken home. The pupils were warned by him. He has broken it. They had seen us. I have told him.

the same words form only part of the verb in each sentence, and help to make up parts of the verbs *send, take, warn, break, see, tell.*

In the latter case, then, these words are spoken of as **Auxiliary** ("helping") verbs, and in the former, by way of distinction, they are called **Principal** verbs.

Besides *have* and *be* the following are also used as auxiliary verbs: *Do, did, may, might, will, would, shall, should.*

INFLECTIONS.

155. We have already said that the verb has more forms than any other part of speech. The number of real *inflections*, however, is not large, for, although verb-phrases, like *will see, had seen* are equivalent to the inflected forms of other languages, and may, therefore, be conveniently and properly classed as forms or parts of the verb, they are not inflections. The following sentences will show the full list of simple forms that any verb, with the exception of the irregular verb *be*, can have :

I know that. Thou knowest our weakness. He knoweth our wants. She knows her lessons. I knew the answer. Thou knewest that fact. It is known by all. Knowing that he was very careful.

Of these eight forms three, namely, *knowest, knoweth, knewest*, are no longer in common use, being confined to prayer and poetry; and in the case of two others, *knew* and *known*, the great majority of verbs have the same form; as,

I heard that. I had heard that. He left home. He has left home. It moved. It was moved.

so that most verbs have only four distinct simple forms in common use.

In the case of the verb *be* the list of forms is somewhat longer; as,

I am here. *Thou art* able. *We are* ready. *He is* ill. *She was* present. *Thou wast* angry. *We were* there. If thou *wert* he. *Be* quiet. He had *been* busy. *Being* alone he could not leave.

156. Attention was previously called to the fact, of which some of the examples just given furnish fresh proof, that the choice of the form of the verb depends partly on the **person** of the *subject*.

If now we look at the following examples:

I was sure that *we were* right. *Thou seest* us. *You see* the result, boys. *He goes* this way and *they go* that way.

we see that the **number** of the *subject* may decide the form to be used.

157. Again, if we compare the following sentences:

(a). *I give* you fair warning. *I gave* them fair warning. (b). *He walks* home every night. *He walked* home every night.

we see that the change in the form of the verb depends neither on the person, nor on the number of the subject, but on the change in the **time** of the *action*. Changes of this nature are known in grammar **as changes of Tense**, the word *tense* meaning *time*; and forms like *give* and *walks*, which refer to the present, **are said** to be in the *present tense*, while *gave* and *walked* **are said** to be in the *past tense*.

158. Lastly, if we compare the sentences:

(a). *I did* so when he *was* here. *I would do* so if he *were* here. (b). Heaven *blesses* him for his goodness. Heaven *bless* you for your goodness.

we see that while the subject remains the same the verb changes its form, and that not because of any change in tense, but because there is a change in the manner, or mode in which the thought is presented.

Thus, in the first sentence of (a) my "doing so" and his "being here" are treated as *facts*, in the second as mere *suppositions*; in the first sentence of (b) "blessing" is represented as a *fact*, in the second as a *wish*.

This distinction is spoken of in grammar as one of **Mood**, which is only another word for *mode* or *manner*.

We must be careful to notice, however, that the mood of a verb has nothing to do with the manner in which an *action is performed*, but depends on the manner in which it is presented, that is, whether it is treated as a *fact*, or merely as a *supposition*, *wish*, or *request*.

159. These four things, then, namely, *person*, *number*, *tense*, and *mood*, determine the use of the different forms of the verb, and verbs are, therefore, said to be inflected for these.

160. Voice is sometimes classed as one of the inflections of the verb, but this is not correct, for, as we have seen, the forms of the passive voice are really *verb-phrases* and cannot properly be classed as inflections.

They are, however, equivalent to the inflected forms of other languages, and may, therefore, be classed as parts of the verb.

MOODS AND TENSES.

161. The number of moods is differently reckoned by grammarians, but all make at least three. Of these the most important is the **Indicative**, which includes those forms of the verb that are used in dealing with matters of fact, that is, in asserting facts or inquiring if things are facts; as,

They all *went* to church. *Has* any one *been* here? The meeting *will be held* on Friday.

162. If inflection is taken as the test there are only two tenses in the indicative mood, namely, the present and the past. As we have already said, however, the want of inflected forms for other tenses is supplied by the use of verb-phrases, which are commonly spoken of as tenses. We shall, therefore, speak of the indicative as including six tenses, and as we use the verbs *have*, *shall*, *will*, as auxiliaries in forming four of the six, we shall give the forms of these verbs first:

HAVE.

PRESENT.		PAST.	
Singular.	Plural.	Singular.	Plural.
1. I have	We have	I had	We had
2. { Thou hast	You have	{ Thou hadst	You had
{ You have		{ You had	
3. He has	They have	He had	They had

SHALL.

1. I shall	We shall	I should	We should
2. { Thou shalt	You shall	{ Thou shouldst	You should
3. He shall	They shall	He should	They should

WILL.

1. I will	We will	I would	We would
2. { Thou wilt	You will	{ Thou wouldst	You would
3. He will	They will	He would	They would

163. The following table will show all the forms of the six tenses of the indicative mood of the active voice, taking the verb *see* as an example.

SIMPLE TENSES.

PRESENT.		PAST.	
Singular.	Plural.	Singular.	Plural.
1. I see	We see	I saw	We saw
2. { Thou seest	You see	{ Thou sawest	You saw.
3. He sees	They see	He saw	They saw

PHRASE TENSES.

FUTURE.	
Singular.	Plural.
1. I shall see	We shall see
2. { Thou wilt see	You will see
3. He will see	They will see

PRESENT PERFECT.

1. I have seen	We have seen
2. { Thou hast seen	You have seen
3. He has seen	They have seen

PAST PERFECT (PLUPERFECT).

1. I had seen	We had seen
2. { Thou hadst seen	You had seen
3. He had seen	They had seen

FUTURE PERFECT.

1. I shall have seen	We shall have seen
2. { Thou wilt have seen	You will have seen
3. He will have seen	They will have seen

These six tenses, then, will serve as a model for any verb, but in the great majority of verbs the participle used in the last three tenses has the same form as the past tense; as,

I called, I have called; He taught, He had taught.

164. We spoke of tense as marking a distinction of time, but the term as we have used it in the foregoing table takes into account not only the time to which the statement refers, but also the completeness or incompleteness of the act. In the last three tenses the word **perfect** means that the act is spoken of as *complete* at the time mentioned, and the other three tenses are often spoken of by way of distinction as the **Present Indefinite**, the **Past Indefinite**, and the **Future Indefinite**.

165. The Present (indefinite) tense has at least four distinct uses :

(1). To express an action taking place or a condition existing at the present time ; as,

How evenly they *march*. He *knows* his lessons now. I *feel* the pain in my finger yet.

(2). To make a statement of a general character, that is in regard to a habit, or to something always or universally true ; as,

He *smokes* a great deal. Heat *expands* metals. The church *faces* the lake. Malta *lies* south of Sicily.

(3). To describe past events for the purpose of giving life and picturesqueness to a narrative ; as,

Suddenly he *dashes* through the midst of them, *mounts* his horse and *gallops* off.

This is commonly known as the **Historical Present**.

(4). To express a future event assumed as a fact ; as,

School *re-opens* next Monday. If he *hears* that he will be angry. When it *comes* I will let you know.

166. The Past (indefinite) is used to state that something happened or was the case at some time in the past ; as,

Columbus *discovered* America. The river *rose* higher than usual. The snow *was* very deep.

It is also used to express what was habitual in the past ; as,

He both *smoked* and *drank*. The boats *called* regularly at these ports.

167. The Future (indefinite) is used to state that something will happen or will be the case at some time in the future; as,

Time *will show* which *was* right. We *shall all be* glad to get home again.

168. The Present Perfect requires careful attention, as it is often misused. As its name shows it is used in speaking of actions which have just been completed, or which occurred in the past but relate in some way to the present.

Thus we say "We *have won* the game," just after the contest is finished. "He *has put* the money in the bank," because it is still there. "Macaulay *has given* us a vivid description of it," because we still have his description.

We must be careful, therefore, not to use this tense with any words that imply that the time we are speaking of is wholly past.

Thus, in the sentences:

He *has* formerly lived in Montreal. How long is it since you *have* heard from him?

the italicized words should be omitted, because *formerly* and *hearing from him* refer to time wholly past.

So, too, we say:

"I *have seen* it twice *this week*"; but "I *saw* it twice *last week*."

In some cases either the past or the present perfect may be used, with a difference of meaning. Thus, in "He *began* Latin this term," the emphasis is laid on the fact of his beginning; he may or may not be still studying it; but in "He *has begun* Latin this term," it is clearly implied that he is still studying it. So, too, "I *called* his attention to the matter" is a mere statement of a past act, while "I *have called* his attention to the matter" implies that I am expecting some result from my act.

169. The Past Perfect, or Pluperfect, as it is also called, is used to state that something happened or was the case before some other event mentioned or implied as happening in the past; as,

The boat *had started* before they reached the wharf. She *had never heard* of such a thing till I spoke of it. I *had forgotten* to lock the door.

The *have* and *had* of the present perfect and past perfect were originally principal verbs denoting possession, and the participles

following them modified the objects. Thus, "He has written down the names," was originally "He has the names written down." Now, however, these two expressions would not usually mean the same, and to show how completely the sense of possession has disappeared we can say:

He has lost his knife. He had given away all his marbles.
and we can use the auxiliaries *have* and *had* with verbs that are intransitive and have no objects; as,

He has gone away. The flowers had faded.

170. The Future Perfect is used to state that something will have happened or will be the case at a certain time in the future; as,

The train *will have left* before you get there. I *shall* soon *have lived* here twenty years.

SHALL AND WILL.

171. One of the most difficult things to master is the proper use of these verbs. It would take too much space to deal fully with their uses, but those who will attend carefully to the following cautions will seldom make mistakes in using them.

In addition to the future indefinite, which, as we said, is used simply to foretell or predict that something will be the case in the future, and is, therefore, sometimes called the **Predictive** future, we use forms which make up what may be called a **Promissive** future, that is, a future in which the speaker makes a promise for himself or in regard to others, that in regard to others often taking the form of a command, decision, or threat. In this future the use of *shall* and *will* is just the reverse of what it is in the predictive future, that is, we use *will* for the first person, and *shall* for the second and third.

Thus, contrast the following groups:

PREDICTIVE FUTURE.

(a). I shall be sixteen next birthday. We shall be able to finish it to-day. You will not have time to do that. He will be late for school. They will be glad to see her again.

PROMISSIVE FUTURE.

(b). I will attend to it at once. We will allow you a share of the profits. Thou shalt see the difference. Thou shalt not steal. You shall know the result to-morrow. No candidate shall be allowed to leave the room. They shall be made to pay for it.

In the case of assertive sentences, then, the pupil should think whether he is merely foretelling something, or expressing a promise or decision, and use the Predictive or Promissive future accordingly. If he does he will not be guilty of such common blunders as,

I will be sorry to leave you all. *We will* be late for school. *I hope we will* be in time to see it.

172. In asking questions observe the following rules :

(a). For the first person always use *shall*; as,

Shall I call for you? How *shall* I know which to take? *Shall* we have time to call for her?

(b). For the second and third persons use whichever you expect to be used in the answer; as,

When *shall* you be able to do it? *Will* you go if he asks you? *Will* there be room for all of us? *Shall* this motion pass?

173. It is evident, therefore, that either form may be correctly used in some sentences, according to the meaning to be conveyed; as,

(a). *I shall* not be the only one to suffer (a prediction). *I will* not be the only one to suffer (a threat).

(b). The race *will* be rowed over again (told as news). The race *shall* be rowed over again (a judge's decision).

(c). *Will* there be any charge for admission? (asks for information). *Shall* there be any charge for admission? (asks for a decision).

174. The following are the chief exceptions to the rules given for assertive sentences :

(1). In prophecy, proverbs, and poetry we often find *shall* in the second and third persons, where it is used not to express a promise or determination of the speaker, the matter referred to being beyond his control, but to mark the *certainty* of the result; as,

For thou *shalt* heap coals of fire upon his head and the Lord *shall* reward thee.

The memory of thy loveliness
Shall round our weary pathway smile.

This is sometimes called the *prophetic shall*.

(2). In subordinate clauses beginning with a conjunctive pronoun, or with such conjunctions as *if*, *when*, *though*, *unless*, we use *shall* in all three persons to express a

future contingency, that is, a result that does not depend on the will, and that may or may not happen; as,

If any candidate *shall* be detected in copying, he shall, etc. The reward will be given to anyone who *shall* furnish evidence, etc.

The tendency, however, is to use the *present* in such cases and say,

If any candidate *is* detected, etc. The reward will be given to anyone who *furnishes*, etc.

175. The foregoing cautions in regard to the use of *shall* and *will* hold true in a general way in regard to the use of *should* and *would*; as,

PREDICTIVE.

I was afraid that I (we) *should* (not *would*) be late. We thought that you (they) *would* be able to finish it.

PROMISSIVE.

I (we) resolved that I (we) *would* put a stop to that. It was agreed that you (they) *should* be put in charge of it.

INTERROGATIVE.

Should I be likely to find him at home? *Should* you be surprised to hear of his failure? *Would* you agree to that? *Would* they be satisfied with that amount?

176. Finally, as experience shows that the common mistake is the use of *will* (*would*) for *shall* (*should*) in the first person let pupils remember

(1). Never to ask "*Will* (*would*) I (we) do or be something?"

(2). Never to say "*I* (we) *will* (*would*) do or be something," unless to express a promise or a decision.

EMPHATIC FORMS.

177. It may be well to give here two other forms for the present and the past indicative. These are made up of the auxiliaries *do* and *did* followed by the simple form of the verb (the infinitive in reality), and, written out in full, they are as follows:

PRESENT.

Sing. I do see.

{ Thou dost see.

{ You do see.

He does see.

Plur. We (you) (they) do see.

PAST.

I did see.

{ Thou didst see.

{ You did see.

He did see.

We (you) (they) did see.

178. If we observe the use made of these forms we shall find that they are employed mainly for three purposes :

(1). In asking questions. Thus, while in older English, and even sometimes yet, we find such questions as,

What thinkest thou ? Whither went they ?

we now commonly say and write,

What do you think ? Whither did they go ?

(2). In negative statements. Thus, while we may say,

He heeds not the warning. They knew not his reasons.

we commonly say,

He does not heed the warning. They did not know his reasons.

(3). To make assertions more emphatic. Thus, if a person doubts the correctness of our statements, we repeat them thus,

She *does* want you. He *did* say so.

From this last use these forms have come to be commonly known as the **Emphatic** present and past.

179. The verb *do* is also used as a substitute for other verbs except *be*, but in such cases it is a *principal* verb and not an *auxiliary*; as,

She knows as much as he *does*. He took longer than I *did*. He spoke better than you *would have done*.

180. Note that good usage allows *don't* as a contraction for *do not* but not for *does not*. Be careful therefore to avoid such expressions as "*She don't seem to care.*" "Is there any *boy that don't* know how to do it?"

181. As the verb *be* differs from other verbs in its present and past indefinite and as it is used in making up the passive and progressive forms of other verbs we give here its indicative mood in full.

PRESENT.		PRESENT PERFECT.	
<i>Sing.</i>	I am.		I have been.
	{ Thou art.		{ Thou hast been.
	{ You are.		{ You have been.
	He is.		He has been.
<i>Plur.</i>	We (you) (they) are.		We (you) (they) have been.

PAST.		PAST PERFECT.	
<i>Sing.</i>	I was.		I had been.
	{ Thou wast.	{	Thou hadst been.
	{ You were.	{	You had been.
	He was.		He had been.
<i>Plur.</i>	We (you) (they) were.		We (you) (they) had been.
FUTURE.		FUTURE PERFECT.	
<i>Sing.</i>	I shall be.		I shall have been.
	{ Thou wilt be.	{	Thou wilt have been.
	{ You will be.	{	You will have been.
	He will be.		He will have been.
<i>Plur.</i>	We shall be.		We shall have been.
	You (they) will be.		You (they) will have been.
PROMISSIVE FUTURE.			
<i>Sing.</i>	I will be.		
	{ Thou shalt be.		
	{ You shall be.		
	He shall be.		
<i>Plur.</i>	We will be.		
	You (they) shall be.		

An emphatic present and past for this verb are not used in good English.

THE SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

182. The indicative mood, as we stated, is used in speaking of *facts*, or of what we assume to be facts. It often happens, however, that we want to speak of things that exist only in our thoughts, as wishes, purposes, or mere suppositions. Thus, in the sentences:

God *grant* that it *be* not too late. Thy kingdom *come*. If he *were* here he *would* do so.

we are not dealing with facts, and the verbs are evidently from their form not in the indicative mood.

These verbs, then, and others similarly used, are said to be in the **Subjunctive** mood, which may be called the *thought* mood as distinguished from the indicative, or *fact* mood.

183. Except in the case of the verb *be*, the forms used for the subjunctive are, with two exceptions, the same as those of the indicative, and, owing to the strong tendency of Modern English to discard the mood altogether, few writers are consistent in their use of it.

Nevertheless, as there are some uses of it which it seems desirable to retain, and as there is a real distinction of

meaning between the two moods even when the forms are the same, we shall try to make plain the most important facts in regard to the use of this mood.

184. Taking the verb *be* first, then, as furnishing the most special forms, and using the word *tense*, as before, to include well-recognized verb phrases, as well as simple forms, we shall make three tenses in the subjunctive mood, with two sets of forms for each ; as,

ORDINARY.

I be.
 { Thou be.
 { You be.
 He be.
 We (you) (they) be.

I were.
 { Thou wert.
 { You were.
 He were.
 We (you) (they) were.

I had been.
 { Thou hadst been.
 { You had been.
 He had been.
 We (you) (they) had been.

PRESENT.

I may be.
 { Thou mayest be.
 { You may be.
 He may be.
 We (you) (they) may be.

PAST.

I might, should, would, be.
 { Thou mightst, shouldst, wouldst, be.
 { You might, should, would, be.
 He might, should, would, be.
 We (you) (they) might, should, would be.

PAST PERFECT.

I might, should, would, have been.
 { Thou mightst, shouldst, wouldst have been.
 { You might, should, would, have been.
 He might, should, would, have been.
 We (you) (they) might, should, would, have been.

Taking now the verb *see*, as before, we have :

ORDINARY.

I, thou, he, } see.
 We, you, they, }

I, he, } saw.
 We, you, they, }
 Thou sawest.

I, he, } had seen.
 We, you, they, }
 Thou hadst seen.

PRESENT.

I, he, } may see.
 We, you, they, }
 Thou mayest see.

PAST.

I, he, } might, should, would,
 We, you, they, } see.
 Thou mightst, shouldst, wouldst, see.

PAST PERFECT.

I, he, } might, should, would,
 We, you, they, } have seen.
 Thou mightst, shouldst, wouldst, have seen.

185. In regard to the use of these tenses, the following facts are to be noted carefully:

PRESENT.

While the tense is present in form, and is sometimes used with reference to the present, it more commonly refers to the future. Its chief uses are:

(1). To express a wish for the future; as,

Thy will *be* done. Happy *be* thy dreams! God *save* the Queen. *Perish* such a thought!

(2). To express a purpose, a caution, or a resolution; as,

Let us hurry lest he *overtake* us. See that all the doors *be* locked. Resolved that the thanks of the council *be* tendered to Mr. Smith, &c.

(3). In concessive clauses; as,

Though justice *be* thy plea, consider this. There is no place like home, *be* it ever so humble.

(4). To express a *contingent* future, that is, a future event that depends on something else than the will of the speaker; as,

I shall do so if it *be* possible. Unless he *give* his consent, we cannot go on.

By older writers it was quite commonly used also to express a doubt with reference to the present, and many good writers still follow this usage; as,

If that *be* the case (now), we need not wait.

In both cases, however, the indicative is commonly used.

It will be seen that in several of the foregoing cases the simple form may be replaced by the phrasal; as,

May Thy will *be* done. Lest he *may overtake* us. Though justice *may be* thy plea.

PAST.

186. This tense is past in form only. It has three distinct uses:

(1). To express a wish with reference to the present; as,

I wish I *were* in your place. Would that he *were* here to see it! O that it *were* possible to do so!

(2). In supposing something that is not the case; as,

If I *were* you, I *should be* glad to do so. If he *knew* that, he *would be* angry.

(3). In supposing something to happen in the future; as,

If the rope *were* to break what *would* you do? If they *did* that we *should* all be benefited.

In all these three cases the modern tendency is to use the indicative when the forms are different, as *was* for *were*, or in the case of sentences like those in (3) to use the phrasal forms; as,

If the rope *should break*. If they *would do* that.

Good usage is still, however, in favor of the subjunctive *were* in all three cases; and it seems especially desirable to retain the use of *were* in the second case as a ready means of distinguishing between the *admission* and the *denial*, or mere *supposition* of a thing; as,

If that *was* the case (admitted) there *was* some excuse. If that *were* the case (denied) there would be some excuse. He would not go though he *was* offered, etc. (admitted). He would not go though he *were* offered, etc. (mere supposition).

187. Pupils may find it convenient to note that

(a). Whenever the simple past tense of a verb is in the subjunctive they can substitute for it a phrase containing *were*; as,

If he *did* (were to do) that I would punish him. If he *believed* that (were of that belief) he would act differently.

(b). Wherever *were* is equal to *should be* or *would be* it is subjunctive; as,

'Tis time that we *were* starting. Life piled on life *were* all too little.

188. The phrasal past with *should* and *would* is of very common occurrence, and in conditional sentences is used in the principal clause as well as in the subordinate; as,

If that *should* happen we *should be* badly off.

It is also used in conjunction with the indicative and the imperative moods; as,

If that *should happen*, I *will let you know* (let me know),

and may even be used when the condition is implied in an infinitive phrase, or is understood; as,

It would not surprise me to hear that (i.e., if I heard that). I should take him to be about fifty (i.e., if I expressed an opinion).

The form *might* is much less common, being confined chiefly to wishes and purposes; as,

Would that it might prove a warning to him! I did so that he might see better.

PAST PERFECT.

189. The use of the remaining two sets of tense forms of the subjunctive mood may be illustrated by the following examples:

If Thou hadst been here, my brother had not died.

If we had known that, we should have been able to go, too.

If that would have satisfied him, there would have been no difficulty.

OTHER USES OF MAY, MIGHT, SHOULD, WOULD.

190. These words, in addition to being used as mood and tense auxiliaries, are also used as *principal* verbs, followed by an infinitive, present or perfect, without *to*.

May and *might*, which originally denoted *power*, now express either permission, or the possibility that something will happen; as,

(a). *You may go now (are at liberty to).*

I told them that they might go (were at liberty to).

(b). *It may rain before night (it is possible).*

I thought it might rain (it was possible).

Should is used to express duty or moral obligation; as,

You should attend to that at once. Should we invite her to the party? The secretary should have notified them.

Would is used either with the force of a *present*, to express a *wish*; as,

Wouldst thou kill me? I would that such were the case.

or as a *past*, to express a *determination* or a *habit*; as,

I offered it to him but he would not accept it. She would sit for hours, looking at their pictures.

CAN, COULD, MUST.

191. These are sometimes classed as *auxiliary verbs*, but as they never wholly lose their own meaning, or become

mere mood and tense signs, it is better to class them as principal verbs, followed by a present or a perfect infinitive without *to*.

Can (*canst*) *could* (*couldst*) express the idea of *power* existing in a person or thing, and are quite distinct in meaning from *may* and *might*. Note, for instance, the difference between

He *can* open it if he likes (*i.e.* he *is able* of himself to do so). He *may* open it if he likes (*i.e.* he *has liberty* or permission to do so).

Pupils should, therefore, avoid the common mistake of using *can* and *could* for *may* and *might* in asking for permission or in speaking of permission. Thus, say

May (not *can*) I leave the room? He told us that we *might* (not *could*) go when we finished the exercise.

Can and *could* may be either indicative or subjunctive:

(a). *Indicative*, I *can* lift that (*am able*). I *could* do it once (*was able*).

(b). *Subjunctive*, I hope that I *can* persuade him (*may be able*). I *could* do it if I wished (*should be able*).

Must implies a necessity of some kind; as,

You *must* finish it before you go. He *must* have made some mistake in his work.

THE IMPERATIVE MOOD.

192. The third mood is known as the **Imperative**, because one of its chief uses is to express a command; as,

Attend to your work. Close your books.

It may, however, express a request, a caution, or an entreaty; as,

Bring her a glass of water. Beware of pickpockets. Have mercy on us.

The auxiliary *do* is commonly used in negative sentences, and also colloquially for emphasis; as,

Do not forget to call for it. Do show it to us.

193. As commands, requests, etc., are directly addressed to someone present or supposed to be listening, the mood

is used only in the present tense and second person, and the pronoun *thou* or *you*, representing the person addressed, is commonly omitted.

A command may also be expressed by the use of the indicative with *shall*, and is sometimes, through courtesy, put in the form of a statement with *will*, as if the speaker assumed that the person will do the thing; as,

Candidates *shall* not be allowed to use rulers. You *will* see that all the windows are closed.

194. We have, however, two ways in which we supply the place of a first and a third person for the imperative:

(1). By the use of the subjunctive present; as,

Turn we now to the other side of the picture. *Come one, come all*, this rock shall fly, etc.

(2). By the use of *let* in the imperative, followed by the present infinitive without *to*; as,

Let us wait here for them. *Let there be* light.

FINITE VERBS.

195. The three moods of which we have now spoken are known as **Finite** or **Definite** moods, and a verb in any one of them is spoken of as a **Finite Verb**. The term *Finite*, which, like most of the special terms used in grammar, is derived from Latin, means *limited*, and implies that the *form* of the verb in these words is *limited* by or dependent on the *person* and *number* of the *subject*; as,

I see, thou seest, he sees; he was, they were,

and it is from this limiting or governing power of the subject that we have the rule of Syntax:

A Finite Verb agrees with its subject in person and number.

196. Although, in consequence of the loss of inflections in Modern English, the term *Finite* verb has lost much of its force in English grammar, it is well to retain it, as it is convenient to have some term that will include only those forms of the verb or their equivalent phrases that can serve as the predicates of sentences. We may also continue to speak of verbs as agreeing with their subjects even when they no longer change their form to mark the agreement.

197. Finite verbs may be parsed as follows :

She has never spoken to me since I said that. If anything should happen, boys, send me word.

<i>has spoken,</i>	Verb, intransitive, indicative, present perfect, 3rd singular, agreeing with its subject <i>she</i> .
<i>said,</i>	Verb, transitive, indicative, past, 1st singular, agreeing with its subject <i>I</i> .
<i>should happen,</i>	Verb, intransitive, subjunctive, phrasal past, 3rd singular, agreeing with its subject <i>anything</i> .
<i>send,</i>	Verb, transitive, imperative, 2nd plural, agreeing with its subject (<i>you</i>).

EXERCISE XLIII.

I. Parse the finite verbs in the following :

1. He showed me what they had done. 2. Come and see the nest that we have found. 3. I shall do so if there be time. 4. They were not in favor of the plan which he speaks of. 5. She did not believe that he would accept it if you offered it to him. 6. Tell me where you put them. 7. They will soon have finished the work that we gave them. 8. What would the world be to us if that were true? 9. If that was the case I will excuse him. 10. Thy kingdom come.

II. Write the 3rd singular of each tense of the indicative active of the verbs *go*, *write*, *seek*.

III. Are the italicized words in the following indicative or subjunctive? Give your reason in each case.

1. I wish that they *were* here. 2. He *would* not go when I asked him. 3. He *would* not go if you asked him. 4. You *should* be more careful, children. 5. If he *broke* it he *will* have to pay for it. 6. If he *broke* one he *would* have to pay for it. 7. You *may* take it with you. 8. I did all I *could*. 9. *Can't* you find it?

10. *Hadst* thou less unworthy *proved*,
I *had loved* thee more than ever wife was loved.

IV. Write sentences using *do*, *did*, *have*, *had*, *would*, *should*, first as auxiliary verbs and then as principal verbs.

V. Correct any errors in the use of verb forms in the following, and give your reason in each case :

1. Where will I put the rest of it? 2. How long is it since you have seen it? 3. If it wasn't so late, I would go, too. 4. He don't seem to care for it. 5. How soon will you be able to start? 6. I wish she was here to show us. 7. I knew we would have plenty of time. 8. He told me that I could have it for a while. 9. They have formerly attended this church. 10. You can't go till you finish that lesson. 11. I wouldn't be surprised to hear of it. 12. He offered a prize to anyone that would guess the answer.

VI. Fill the blanks correctly with,

(a). *Shall or will.*

1. I — go, and nobody — prevent me. 2. — you be sorry to leave school? 3. I — feel much obliged if you — do that. 4. — we be allowed to use rulers? 5. The judge has decided that the race — be rowed this evening.

(b). *Should or would.*

1. I — be very glad to hear that. 2. I did that lest he — suspect my object. 3. Though I — die in defence of it, I — not yield. 4. He promised that it — not occur again. 5. Probably if you — ask him for it, he — give it to you.

(c). *Was or were.*

1. If it — possible, I would do so. 2. He often wishes he — back again. 3. If he — here this morning, I did not see him. 4. It looks as if it — going to rain. 5. He wouldn't take it though it — offered to him.

VII. Distinguish in meaning:

1. Will (shall) he be allowed another trial? 2. He lived (has lived) there several years. 3. You will (shall) have another chance. 4. He might (could) break it if he had the chance. 5. If that was (were) the case, what ought I to do?

THE INFINITIVE.

198. In addition to the three finite moods there are certain other forms of the verb with which we have had more or less to do, and which we call infinitives and participles. Whether these should be called moods is a disputed question. It is, however, a matter of no practical importance, and need not be discussed here. It is, important, however, to remember that they do not change their form for either number or person, and that they cannot be used as predicates.

199. The infinitive may usually be recognized by having the word *to* prefixed to it. Hence *to* is often spoken of as *the sign of the infinitive*.

There are two tenses of the infinitive, a present and a present perfect; as,

Present. *To be, to see, to write.*

Present Perfect. *To have been, to have seen, to have written.*

200. The *to* is not really a part of the infinitive, it is simply the preposition *to* which was originally used only with the dative case of the infinitive after verbs and adjectives (sometimes called the

Gerundial Infinitive); as, "He came to see." "He is able to walk." When the inflections were dropped, it came to be regarded as a mark of mood, not of case.

201. The *to* is omitted in certain cases, however,

(1). When the infinitive is used with auxiliary verbs to form mood and tense phrases; as,

He did *say* so. She will *send* you word. He would *give* it to you if you asked him.

When used in this way, it is frequently spoken of as the **Complementary Infinitive**.

(2). After the verbs *can*, *could*, *must*, *bid*, *behold*, *feel*, *hear*, *let*, *make*, *observe*, *perceive*, *see*, *watch*, and sometimes after *dare*, *need*, *know*; as,

He bade us *enter*. I saw him *pick* it. I have known her *do* that.

We may even omit *to be* from the passive infinitive in some instances; as, "I have seen that (to be) done."

With *dare* and *need* the *to* is usually omitted in negative statements and inserted in affirmative ones; as,

He dare not *do* so. She need not *finish* it. He dares *to say* that. She needs *to watch* them.

It is worth noticing, also, that the *s* of the third singular is omitted when these verbs are used negatively.

(3). After the idiomatic expressions *had better*, *had rather*, etc., and sometimes after the preposition *but*; as,

I had rather *go* now than *stay* alone. He did nothing but *laugh*.

202. The infinitive may be said to have four chief uses:

(1). As a complementary infinitive,

(2). As the whole or part of a noun phrase used as a subject or an object; as,

To err is human. He wanted *to know the result*.

(3). As the whole or part of an adjective phrase; as,

He hadn't time *to think*. I'll give you a chance *to see them again*.

(4). As the whole or part of an adverbial phrase; as,

I came here *to study*. He was not able *to answer it correctly*.

It will be noticed that the infinitive retains its power as a verb to govern an object, and that it may be modified by an adverb. It may even, when forming part of a noun phrase in the objective, have a subject in the objective case; as, "He wants *me to do* that."

PARTICIPLES.

203. Verbs have three participles in the active voice:

(1). One ends in *ing*; as, *being, seeing, calling, leaving*.

This is often called the **Present** participle, from its expressing *present time*, but it is perhaps better called the **Imperfect**, from its representing an *action as incomplete*.

(2). The other simple participle has a variety of endings; as, *been, seen, called, heard, left, taught, made*.

This is known either as the **Past** participle, from its reference to past time, or the **Perfect** participle, from its representing an action as *completed*.

It is also sometimes called the **Passive** participle, because in transitive verbs it expresses an act that has been *suffered* by somebody or something; as,

A child, *stung* by a bee, began to cry.

(3). A *present perfect participle*, made up of the perfect participle preceded by *having*; as, *having been, having seen, having called, having taught*.

204. Participles partake of the nature of two parts of speech. They have the relation of *adjectives*, and modify nouns and pronouns, while as verbs they *express*, but do not *assert*, action; and the imperfect and present perfect participles of transitive verbs may take objects after them. Thus, in the sentences:

I found them *studying* their lessons. The porter, *having* carefully *locked* the gates, went home. A tree, *blown* down by the wind, lay across the road.

we see that the participles all express action and modify nouns or pronouns, and that in the first two sentences they govern objects.

205. If we examine the following sentences :

He told us an *amusing* story. Is that an *interesting* book? That was a *daring* deed. I pity the *tired* mother. He is a very *learned* man. They are *hardened* offenders.

we see that imperfect and perfect participle forms may be used simply as *adjectives* to express the *quality* or *state* of a thing, without suggesting action.

When thus used, they may even be compared ; as,

She had the *most fascinating* manner. He seemed *more excited* than the rest. This is *less interesting*.

GERUNDS.

206. If now we examine the following sentences :

Picking berries here is slow work. He found some difficulty in *arranging* them properly. She blamed us for not *having told* her. He accused her of *having acted* unfairly.

we see that the imperfect and perfect participle forms are also used with the relation of nouns, while as verbs they may be modified by adverbs, and may, if transitive, take objects after them. When so used these forms are known as **Gerunds**, and may be distinguished as *Imperfect* and *Perfect*.

207. Lastly, if we examine sentences like the following :

He could hardly earn a *living*. It looks like her *writing*. That was a wise *saying*. The *warning* was soon forgotten.

we see that just as *participles* lose their verb force and become mere *adjectives*, so *gerunds* lose their force as verbs and become mere *nouns*.

208. It is not always easy to determine whether a word should be classed as a participle or as a mere adjective, or, again, whether another word is a gerund or a mere noun, especially in the case of forms from intransitive verbs. A careful pupil ought, however, to be able to decide whether a word is a participle or a gerund, if he keeps in mind that the former is always partly verb and partly adjective, and the latter partly verb and partly noun.

209. As a participle is always partly verb, words like *unknown* and *unseen* should not be parsed as participles, there being no such verbs as *unknow* or *unsee*.

210. Participles and gerunds are of very great service in composition as a means of shortening sentences and varying the construction. Thus the sentences :

He started for home and left us to follow. Is there no way in which it can be tested?

may be shortened into simple sentences ; as,

He started for home, *leaving* us to follow. Is there no way of *testing* it?

Care must be taken, however, to see that the participles have always a definite relation to some word in the sentence. Thus, in the sentence :

Alarmed by this report, it was decided to retreat.

there is no relation for *alarmed*, whereas if we write "*he (they) (we) decided*," the relation will be quite plain.

211. As infinitives, participles, and gerunds are not treated as separate parts of speech, it is better to class them as verbs. They may be parsed as follows :

The girls sitting in the back seat wish to know when you will have time to assist them in solving a problem.

sitting, Verb, intransitive, imperfect participle, modifying *girls*.

to know, Verb, transitive, present infinitive, used with the value of a noun in the objective, governed by the verb *wish*.

to assist, Verb, transitive, present infinitive, forming part of an adj. phrase, modifying *time*.

solving, Verb, transitive, imperfect gerund, governing *problem*, and objective, governed by the preposition *in*.

EXERCISE XLIV.

I. Write the perfect infinitive of *speak*, *commit*, *tear*, *break*, *prefer*.

II. Write the imperfect and present perfect participles of *go*, *choose*, *freeze*, *compel*, *forget*.

III. Parse the infinitives in the following:

1. He came to tell us where to go. 2. I am sorry to hear that. 3. Give me a chance to see it. 4. I saw him open the door. 5. You are too late to see it. 6. His object was to do that. 7. All stood up to see it. 8. He refused to give it back. 9. You need not wait any longer. 10. To do that will take time. 11. Be kind enough to close the door. 12. Have you any work to do to-night?

IV. Parse the words in *ing* in the following:

1. Are you fond of looking at pictures? 2. I caught them stealing apples. 3. I don't like sawing wood. 4. He earns his living that

way. 5. We met her coming home. 6. I stood at the crossing. 7. Early rising is good for you. 8. He received several threatening letters. 9. That was a rather strange proceeding. 10. Rising early, we resumed our journey. 11. He is just a living skeleton. 12. The burning of the bridge delayed the train. 13. Stop talking.

V. Pick out the perfect participles, and say what they modify:

1. He wore a ragged coat, spotted with paint. 2. We found it hidden in the bushes. 3. You must give your undivided attention to it. 4. Are there any dishes left unbroken? 5. I fear it will be like seed dropped by the wayside. 6. He dropped it into the cistern. 7. He is said to be a very talented man. 8. He left the horses unhitched. 9. They hadn't come prepared to stay. 10. He wore a neatly mended coat. 11. Here is one made of steel.

VI. Use *living*, *burning*, *working*, with as many different values as you can, and tell the value in each case.

SUMMARY OF ACTIVE FORMS.

212. We have now dealt with all the parts that it seems necessary to include as ordinary forms of the active voice, and for convenient reference we shall group them all together. This time we shall take the verb *write* as an example, and shall give only the 3rd singular of the tenses in the indicative and subjunctive. We shall also place beside the forms of *write* those of the verb *be*.

INDICATIVE.

Present (indefinite),	writes.	is.
Past (indefinite),	wrote.	was.
Future (indefinite),	will write.	will be.
Present perfect,	has written.	has been.
Past perfect,	had written.	had been.
Future perfect,	will have written.	will have been.
Present emphatic,	does write.	(wanting.)
Past emphatic,	did write.	(wanting.)

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Present,	write.	be.
Past,	wrote.	were.
Past perfect,	had written.	had been.
Phrasal present,	may write.	may be.
Phrasal past,	{ might, should, would, write.	{ might, should, would, be.
Phrasal past perfect,	{ might, should, would, have written.	{ might, should, would, have been.

IMPERATIVE.

Present,	write.	be.
Present emphatic,	do write.	do be.
Phrasal,	let him write.	let him be.

INFINITIVE.

Present,	(to) write.	(to) be.
Present perfect,	(to) have written.	(to) have been.

PARTICIPLES.

Imperfect,	writing.	being.
Perfect (or past),	written.	been.
Present perfect,	having written.	having been.

GERUNDS.

Imperfect,	writing.	being.
Present perfect,	having written.	having been.

THE PROGRESSIVE FORM.

213. By combining the parts of the verb *be* in succession with the *imperfect participle* of any other verb, whether transitive or intransitive, we get what are known as **Progressive** (or **Continuous**) forms of the active voice of that verb, these names being given to them because they represent the action as continuing at the time denoted by the tense. Thus, taking the word *give*, we may have a full set of forms; as,

Present. I am giving, thou art giving, he is giving, etc.
 Past. I was giving, etc.
 Future. I shall be giving, etc.

and so on throughout the rest of the parts, till we come to the participles and gerunds, where we shall have only one form, viz., *having been giving*.

THE PASSIVE VOICE.

214. Again by combining in the same way the forms of the verb *be* with the *perfect participle* of a transitive verb we get what are known as **Passive** forms, which taken together make up the **Passive Voice** of a transitive verb. Thus, using the verb *take*, we have a full set of forms; as,

Present. I am taken, thou art taken, he is taken, etc.
 Past. I was taken, etc.
 Future. I shall be taken, etc.

and so on, throughout the remaining parts of the verb.

215. Lastly, by combining the verb *be* with the imperfect participle of the passive, we get progressive forms of the passive voice; as,

Present. I am being taught, thou art being taught, he is being taught, etc.
 Past. I was being taught, etc.

Only these two tenses are used, however: for such forms as we should have in the other tenses; as,

This *has been being done*. They *will have been being taught*.

are too cumbrous ever to come into common use.

216. Even these two tenses are quite modern, having come into use in the present century, and are still objected to by some grammarians and critics, who condemn them as illogical and unnecessary, and would have us continue to use the active forms; as,

Another house *is building* (i.e., *a-building* or *in building*). Preparations *were making* (i.e., *in making*).

It is useless to object to them, however, as they are now thoroughly established; and though we continue in some cases to use the older form, as, "Wheat *is selling*," we feel that there is a decided advantage in having two forms, active and passive, as in the case of

"He was teaching this," and "He was being taught this."

217. Care must be taken not to confound the progressive form of the active voice with the passive voice, as the difference in meaning is not less marked than the difference in form. Note that in the *progressive* active we use the *imperfect participle*, and in the *passive* we use the *perfect participle*; as,

Progressive active. He was watching. We have been seeing.

Passive. He was watched. We have been seen.

218. Another mistake that must be guarded against is that of taking the verb *be* and a predicate adjective as forming a passive verb; as,

The cause of it *is unknown*. He *was ashamed* to be seen.

219. It does not even follow that if the verb *be* is followed by a word which may be a perfect participle, the two should always be taken together as forming a passive verb. The only way to decide is to remember that a passive voice implies the existence of a corresponding active; that the *active* represents the subject as *performing* an act, and the *passive* represents it as *suffering* the act, and that every true passive should admit of being turned back to a corresponding active.

Thus, if we compare the following sentences:

(a). The children were *tired* and sleepy. His clothes are *torn* and dirty.

(b). The children were *tired* by their long walk. His clothes are *torn by the nails in the seats*.

we see that in the first pair the italicized words do not express action, but merely describe the state or condition of the *children* and *clothes*. The words *tired* and *torn* are, therefore, simply predicate adjectives, modifying *children* and *clothes*.

In the second pair, however, there is *action* expressed, the *children* and *clothes* being represented as *having suffered* something done to them, and we can easily change the sentences to corresponding active forms; as,

Their long walk tired the children. The nails in the seats tear his clothes.

In these sentences, therefore, *were tired* and *are torn* are true passive verbs.

Similarly in such sentences as,

Spring is come at last. The stage *was gone*.

it is plain that *is come* and *was gone* are not passive verbs, but that *come* and *gone* are mere predicate adjectives modifying *spring* and *stage*.

220. Progressive and passive forms of the verb may be parsed as follows:

I was showing him the changes that have been made in the building. It could not have been brought here without being injured.	
<i>was showing,</i>	Verb, transitive, active, progressive, indicative, past, 1st singular, agreeing with its subject <i>I</i> .
<i>have been made,</i>	Verb, transitive, passive, indicative, present perfect, 3rd plural, agreeing with its subject <i>that</i> .
<i>could,</i>	Verb, indicative, past, 3rd singular, agreeing with its subject <i>it</i> .
<i>have been brought,</i>	Verb, transitive, passive, infinitive, present perfect, complementary to <i>could</i> .
<i>being injured,</i>	Verb, transitive, passive, imperfect gerund, object of the preposition <i>without</i> .

EXERCISE XLV.

I. Parse the verbs in the following:

1. I have been looking over the questions that were given at the last examination. 2. Let us see what you are doing. 3. They would all have been sorry if you had been hurt. 4. An opportunity will be given to all that wish to see it. 5. It was seen twice by the men who were working on the road. 6. He does not believe that the problem can be solved. 7. The fear of being discovered made him afraid to move. 8. The money may have been given to him. 9. An opportunity having been given, he explained what had been done. 10. The matter must be attended to at once.

II. Write out with a pronoun the 3rd singular of each tense of the indicative active of *ride*.

III. Write in the same way the 3rd singular of each tense of the progressive active indicative of *break*.

IV. Write in the same way the 3rd singular of each tense of the indicative passive of *choose*.

V. Write the 3rd singular of the present indefinite, present perfect, present progressive, present emphatic, and present passive of the verb *drive*.

VI. Write out in full the predictive future of *leave* and the promissive future of *keep*, active and passive.

VII. Change the verbs in the following to the passive:

1. They sometimes make mistakes. 2. She will send you word. 3. The ball broke the glass. 4. Does anyone ever read it? 5. No one had ever seen it. 6. We have not received any word from him.

VIII. Change the verbs in the following to the active:

1. The correct answer was given by two pupils. 2. These scholars are taught by the assistant. 3. It had been left there by someone. 4. By whom was this broken? 5. These plants have been injured by the frost. 6. It will never be seen by anyone.

IX. Explain why the voice of the verb can't be changed in the following sentences:

1. He ran home for it. 2. They had worked hard all day. 3. Two of the tumblers were cracked. 4. It weighs a pound.

X. What advantages result from our having a passive voice?

XI. Select all the passive verbs in the following:

1. We are prepared to undertake the job. 2. He was ruined by the extravagance. 3. The steel is hardened by this process. 4. My task is finished. 5. The money was gone. 6. We were well treated by the citizens. 7. Two men were killed, and three more seriously injured. 8. He was undecided what to do. 9. The sun is risen.

XII. Are the italicized verbs auxiliary or principal?

1. He *had* no right to be there. 2. I *do* not believe that he *did* that. 3. She *was* at church yesterday. 4. I fear that we *have* not time to wait. 5. You *may* have your choice. 6. If the platform *should* give way, many *would* be hurt. 7. What *wilt* thou? 8. They *will* be late for school. 9. He *does* that whenever he *has* the chance. 10. He *would* not open the door for us. 11. He *was* ashamed to show it. 12. I hope that you *may* succeed.

CONJUGATION.

221. We have learned that, including the infinitives and the participles, verbs, with the exception of *be*, have at most only eight simple forms; as,

1. Give. 2. Givest. 3. Gives. 4. Giveth. 5. Gave. 6. Gavest. 7. Giving. 8. Given.

Of these the second, third, fourth and seventh are always formed in the same way from the first, and the sixth from the fifth, by adding certain inflections; and we have learned also that the first, seventh and eighth are the forms used with auxiliary verbs in making up phrasal mood and tense forms; as,

They will give. He has been giving. If it were given.

It is clear, therefore, that if we know the first, fifth and eighth forms of any verb, or in other words the *present tense*, the *past tense*, and the *perfect participle*, we ought now, after what we have learned of voice, mood and tense forms, to be able to write down correctly any required part of the verb.

These three forms, then, are said to be the **Principal Parts** of a verb, and when we give them in that order we are said to **conjugate** the verb; as,

Present.	Past.	P. Participle.	Present.	Past.	P. Participle.
fall,	fell,	fallen.	see,	saw,	seen.
give,	gave,	given.	take,	took,	taken.
know,	knew,	known.	write,	wrote,	written.

222. In these verbs that we have given as examples it will be noticed that the three parts are different in form, that in the past tense the internal vowel is different from that of the present, and that the perfect participle is formed by adding *en* or *n* to the present.

If, however, we examine a large number of verbs as we come to them in reading, we shall find that the great majority of them have the same form for the past tense and the perfect participle; as,

Present.	Past.	P. Part.	Present.	Past.	P. Part.
call,	called,	called.	try,	tried,	tried.
hear,	heard,	heard.	pay,	paid,	paid.
change,	changed,	changed.	permit,	permitted,	permitted.

and that this form is got from the present by adding *ed* or *d*, and, if necessary, changing a *y* to *i*, or doubling a final consonant.

We may, therefore, divide verbs into two classes known as **Conjugations**, according to the way in which they form their past tense and perfect participle.

223. Now, it has been found that the method which we illustrated first, namely, that of forming the past tense by an internal vowel change, and the perfect participle by adding *n* or *en* is the older method; that, in fact, it was the chief, if not the only method originally used in English. Verbs of this class are, therefore, spoken of as verbs of the **Old Conjugation**.

On the other hand, all verbs that have been introduced into Modern English follow the other method, and form the past tense and perfect participle by adding *ed* or *d* to the present; and such verbs are, therefore, spoken of as verbs of the **New (or Modern) Conjugation**.

224. The *old* conjugation is also spoken of as the **Strong** conjugation, and the *new* as the **Weak**, because verbs of the old conjugation are, so to speak, strong enough to form the past tense by a change within themselves, while those of the new have to borrow and add an inflection. The past tense thus furnishes the best test of the conjugation to which a verb belongs.

225. The number of verbs of the old conjugation is not large, and as no rule can be given to tell us what the vowel change in any verb will be, and as, besides, these verbs present many irregularities in the formation of the past tense and perfect participle, it is usual to give a list of them, with their principal parts.

The following list will be found to contain all but a few of the least common. It will be noticed that they are nearly all monosyllables.

Compounds of these verbs are conjugated like the simple ones; as,

take, took, taken; undertake, undertook, undertaken.

VERBS OF THE OLD CONJUGATION.

(Only forms now in use are given.)

Present.	Past.	P. Part.	Present.	Past.	P. Part.
abide,	abode,	abode.	ride,	rode,	ridden.
am, be,	was,	been.	ring,	rang,	rung.
arise,	arose,	arisen.	rise,	rose,	risen.
bear,	bore,	{ borne.	run,	ran,	run.
		{ born.	see,	saw,	seen.
beat,	beat,	beaten.	shake,	shook,	shaken.
become,	became,	become.	shine,	shone,	shone.
begin,	began,	began.	shrink,	shrank,	shrunk.
bid,	{ bade.	bidden.	sing,	sang,	sung.
	{ bid,	bid.	sink,	sank,	sunk.
bind,	bound,	bound.	sit,	sat,	sat.
bite,	bit,	{ bitten.	slay,	slew,	slain.
		{ bit.	slide,	slid,	{ slid.
blow,	blew,	blown.			{ slidden.
break,	broke,	broken.	sling,	slung,	slung.
chide,	chid,	{ chidden.	slink,	slunk,	slunk.
		{ chid.	smite,	smote,	smitten.
choose,	chose,	chosen.	speak,	spoke,	spoken.
cling,	clung,	clung.	spin,	spun,	spun.
come,	came,	come.	spring,	sprang,	sprung.
dig,	dug,	dug.	stand,	stood,	stood.
draw,	drew,	drawn.	steal,	stole,	stolen.
drive,	drove,	driven.	stick,	stuck,	stuck.
drink,	drank,	drunk.	sting,	stung,	stung.
eat,	ate,	eaten.	stink,	{ stank,	stunk.
fall,	fell,	fallen.		{ stunk,	
fight,	fought,	fought.	strike,	struck,	struck.
find,	found,	found.	stride,	strode,	stridden.
fling,	flung,	flung.	string,	strung,	strung.
fly,	flew,	flown.	strive,	strove,	striven.
forbear,	forbore,	forborne.	swear,	swore,	sworn.
forbid,	forbade,	forbidden.	swim,	swam,	swum.
forsake,	forsook,	forsaken.	swing,	swung,	swung.
forget,	forgot,	forgotten.	take,	took,	taken.
freeze,	froze,	frozen.	tear,	tore,	torn.
get,	got,	got.	throw,	threw,	thrown.
give,	gave,	given.	tread,	trod,	{ trodden.
grind,	ground,	ground.			{ trod.
grow,	grew,	grown.	wear,	wore,	worn.
hide,	hid,	{ hidden.	weave,	wove,	woven.
		{ hid.	win,	won,	won.
hold,	held,	held.	wind,	wound,	wound.
know,	knew,	known.	wring,	wrung,	wrung.
lie,	lay,	lain.	write,	wrote,	written.

226. Verbs having forms of both conjugations.

Present.	Past.	P. Part.	Present.	Past.	P. Part.
awake,	{ awoke,	{ awoke.	do,	did,	done.
	{ awaked,	{ awaked.	mow,	mowed,	{ mowed.
cleave,	{ clove,	{ cloven.			{ mown.
	{ cleft,	{ cleft.	shear,	sheared,	{ sheared.
hang,	{ hung,	{ hung.			{ shorn.
	{ hanged,	{ hanged.	show,	showed,	{ showed.
thrive,	{ throve,	{ thriven.			{ shown.
	{ thrived,	{ thrived.	saw,	sawed,	{ sawed.
sew,	sewed,	{ sewed.			{ sawn.
		{ sewn.	sow,	sowed,	{ sowed.
strew,	strewed,	{ strewed.			{ sown.
		{ strewn.	swell,	swelled.	{ swelled.
		{ strown.			{ swollen.
hew,	hewed,	{ hewed.	wake,	{ woke,	{ woke.
		{ hewn.		{ waked,	{ waked.

Note that *hanged* is used only in speaking of persons; as,
The judge sentenced him to be hanged.

A number of past tense forms that are no longer in common use are sometimes met with in books; as, *bare*, *clave*, *clomb*, *crew*, *drave*, *brake*, *spake*, *sware*, *tare*.

A number of participle forms are in use now only as adjectives; as, *drunken*, *graven*, *molten*, *laden*, *rotten*, *shaven*, *shrunk*, *stricken*, *bounden*, *sunken*.

THE NEW CONJUGATION.

227. Verbs of the new conjugation that simply add *ed* or *d* without further change than that of sometimes doubling the final consonant or of substituting *i* for *y* may be called **Regular** verbs of the new conjugation; and it will not be necessary, even if it were practicable, to give a list of them and their principal parts.

228. There are, however, a number of verbs of the new conjugation that present some peculiarities:

(1). When the *ed* follows certain consonants, it has to be sounded as *t*; as, *reached*, *wished*, *missed*, *hoped*, *vexed*, *doffed*, *laughed*, and this has naturally led to the substitution of *t* for *ed* in many verbs. In some cases both forms are in use; as, *blessed* or *blest*, *leaped* or *leapt*, *burned* or *burnt*.

(2). In other cases only the form in *t* is now in use, and in such verbs there is usually a shortening of the vowel

sound, or of both the form and the sound; as, *mean, meant; lose, lost; feel, felt; leave, left*.

(3). In some cases, when only *d* has been added, there is a change of vowel or of vowel sound; as, *tell, told; flee, fled; say, said; shoe, shod*.

(4). Lastly, a number of verbs ending in *d* or *t* have dropped the *ed* which they originally added. Most of these have the same form for all three parts; as, *hit, put, set, shed, spread, read*; while others have substituted *t* for *ed*, or have shortened the form; as, *send, sent; bleed, bled; lead, led*.

229. IRREGULAR VERBS OF THE NEW CONJUGATION.

(Those marked with an * have also a form in *ed*.)

Present.	Past and P. P.	Present.	Past and P. P.	Present.	Past and P. P.
bend,	*bent.	hurt,	hurt.	send,	sent.
bereave,	*bereft.	keep,	kept.	set,	set.
beseech,	besought.	kneel,	*knelt.	shed,	shed.
bet,	bet.	knit,	*knit.	shoe,	shod.
bleed,	bled.	lay,	laid.	shut,	shut.
breed,	bred.	lead,	led.	shoot,	shot.
bring,	brought.	lean,	*leant.	sleep,	slept.
burn,	*burnt.	leap,	*leapt.	smell,	*smelt.
burst,	burst.	learn,	*learnt.	speed,	sped.
buy,	bought.	leave,	left.	spell,	*spelt.
cast,	cast.	lend,	lent.	spend,	spent.
catch,	caught.	let,	let.	spill,	*spilt.
clothe,	*clad.	light,	*lit.	spit,	spat.
cost,	cost.	lose,	lost.	split,	split.
creep,	crept.	make,	made	spoil,	*spoilt.
cut,	cut.	mean,	meant.	spread,	spread.
dare,	*durst.	pay,	paid.	sweat,	sweat.
deal,	dealt.	pen,	*pent.	sweep,	swept.
dream,	*dreamt.	put,	put.	teach,	taught.
dwelt,	dwelt.	quit,	*quit.	tell,	told.
feed,	fed.	read,	read.	think,	thought.
feel,	felt.	rend,	rent.	thrust,	thrust.
flee,	fled.	rid,	rid.	weep,	wept.
gild,	*gilt.	say,	said.	wet,	*wet.
gird,	*girt.	seek,	sought.	wheat,	*wheat.
have,	had	sell,	sold.	work,	*wrought.
hear,	heard.				

CAUTIONS.

230. In connection with the foregoing lists, there are three classes of mistakes that require to be specially guarded against, namely:

(1). Using the past tense for the perfect participle, or the participle for the tense, when these are different in

form. This is a very common blunder, especially with a few verbs, such as *do*, *see*, *go*, *come*, *choose*, *write*, *begin*. Thus we hear and see such sentences as,

I know he *done* it, for I *seen* him do it. You have *went* over that lesson several times. He might have *chose* this one.

(2). Using forms not sanctioned by good usage: as,

He *throwed* (for *threw*) it over the fence. He *pled* (for *pleaded*) earnestly for another chance.

(3). Confounding transitive and intransitive verbs, especially *lay* and *lie*, *raise* and *rise*, *set* and *sit*; as,

His books were *laying* on the desk. She could not get her bread to *raise*. *Set* nearer the fire.

EXERCISE XLVI.

Correct any errors in the verbs in the following:

1. That page was *tore* out of my book. 2. He surely can't have forgot about it. 3. She rung the bell several times. 4. They beseeched him to spare them. 5. They would have hung him if they had catched him. 6. He attackted me on the street. 7. His shoes are nearly wore out. 8. He dove twice for it. 9. You might have wrote oftener to us. 10. He swum across the creek.

II. Which of the italicized forms is correct?

1. He was forced to *fly* (*flee*). 2. It must have *laid* (*lain*) there for some time. 3. The river had *raised* (*risen*) during the night. 4. *Lay* (*lie*) perfectly still. 5. The toast was *drank* (*drunk*) with great enthusiasm. 6. The river had *overflowed* (*overflown*) its banks. 7. *Set* (*sit*) still till I am ready. 8. Two errors *underlaid* (*underlay*) that theory. 9. I saw it *laying* (*lying*) on the floor. 10. Who is that *sitting* (*setting*) by the window?

ADVERBS.

231. We learned in Part I. that adverbs are words that modify verbs, adjectives or other adverbs, and that will answer such questions as *where*, *when*, *how*.

Further examination shows that adverbs may be divided according to their meaning into the following six classes:

(1). Adverbs of **place**, answering such questions as *where*, *whence*, *whither*; as, *here*, *there*, *thence*, *forward*, *away*, *down*, *across*.

(2). Adverbs of **time**, answering the questions *when*, *how often*, *in what order*; as, *now*, *lately*, *often*, *seldom*, *never*, *twice*, *first*, *lastly*.

(3). Adverbs of **manner**, answering the question *how*; as, *thus, so, well, poorly, easily, slowly, fast*.

(4). Adverbs of **degree**, answering the question *to what extent*; as, *much, less, very, too, quite, almost, enough*.

(5). Adverbs of **affirmation** and **negation** (or assertion and denial); as, *yes, no, perhaps, probably, certainly*.

(6). Adverbs of **cause** or **consequence**, as, *why, therefore, consequently, accordingly*.

Some adverbs have more than one meaning, and hence may be classified in more than one way; as,

Depart *hence*, (place). *Hence* you will see the necessity (cause).

232. Adverbs may also be classified *according to their use* into

(1). **Simple** adverbs, or those that merely modify.

(2). **Conjunctive** adverbs, those which, in addition to modifying verbs in their own clauses, serve also, like conjunctive pronouns, to connect these clauses with others on which they are dependent; as,

He was writing a letter *when* I entered the room. Put that back *where* you got it.

The division into simple and conjunctive is, like many others in grammar, not a fixed one, for the conjunctive adverbs may be used as simple ones.

Conjunctive adverbs are often called **Adverbial Conjunctions**.

233. Adverbs that are used in asking questions are often called **Interrogative** adverbs; as,

How do you know? *Where* did he get it? *When* did they start? *Why* did you take it?

234. There are certain other adverbs which, in the absence of conjunctions between independent clauses, acquire more or less of a conjunctive force, and are, therefore, classed by some as conjunctions; as,

He deceived me once, (and) *therefore* I shall not trust him. It was growing dark, (or) *else* I would have waited. It looks suspicious, (but) *still* he may be innocent.

and so with *hence, likewise, nevertheless, otherwise*, etc.

As they are used with the same meaning, however, when the conjunctions are expressed, and as they are then certainly adverbs, it is plain that whatever conjunctive force they may acquire in the absence of conjunctions, they do not cease to be adverbs.

235. Some adverbs may modify phrases and even clauses. Thus, if we compare,

- (a). It stood just *there*.
It stood just *at the corner*.
It stood just *where that post is*.
- (b). He would not stop even *then*.
He would not stop even *after my warning*.
He would not stop even *after I warned him*.

we see that the adverbs *just* and *even* bear the same relation to the phrase and the clause as they do to the single word.

236. Sometimes we find words that are usually adverbs employed as adjectives to modify nouns or pronouns; as,

Even you will admit that. They left *merely* the walls. During his residence *here* he made many friends.

Sometimes, too, an adverb seems to modify the whole statement; as,

Fortunately no one was hurt. *Evidently* they must have moved it.

237. A very few adverbs are compared like adjectives by adding *er* and *est*; as, *soon*, *sooner*, *soonest*; *often*, *oftener*, *oftenest*. Others, including most adverbs of manner, may be compared by using *more* and *most*; as, *easily*, *more easily*, *most easily*.

A few, namely, *ill*, *well*, *much*, *little*, *far*, *near*, are compared irregularly; but as the forms are the same as for the corresponding adjectives, they need not be repeated here.

238. The peculiarity of the adverb *there* when used as an *introductory expletive*, and of the adverbs *yes* and *no*, has already been dealt with in Part I. (61 and 62).

239. Many words that are ordinarily employed as other parts of speech are sometimes used as adverbs; as,

He ran *home*. *What* does it matter? It was of a *jet* black color. The water was *boiling* hot. The wound was only *skin* deep. It went *crash* through the window.

CAUTIONS.

240. In regard to the use of adverbs the following points should be carefully noted.

(1). Guard against the common tendency to use the adjective form for the adverbial. Remember that adjectives modify nouns, pronouns, or anything used with the value of a noun, while adverbs modify verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs; as,

Adjectives. His writing is *plain* enough. That method is *easier* than the other.

Adverbs. He writes *plainly* enough. That is *more easily* said than done.

Be careful, therefore, not to use the following words or phrases as adverbs:

Good, bad, easy, real, fair, plain, queer, suitable, different, thick, plenty, some, that, kind of, sort of.

and avoid using the words *firstly, illy, overly*; and saying, *most for almost.*

In the case of some words we have now no separate form for the adverb, and the one word, therefore, does double duty; as,

Adjectives: *Hard* work; a *fast* horse; a *daily* paper.

Adverbs: He works *hard*. She walks *fast*. They call *daily*.

(2). In regard to some words usage is inconsistent. Thus we say:

"He called *loudly* for help," but "Speak *louder*." "If I am *rightly* informed," but "It served him *right*." "He walked *slowly* towards it," but "My watch goes too *slow*." "He watched *closely*," but "A *close* fitting jacket." "He is *deeply* concerned," but "He drove it in *deep*."

(3). With the verbs *look, feel, taste, smell, sound*, use,

(a). Adjectives, if you wish to describe the condition or quality of the person or thing spoken of, or to say that he or it *has* a certain look, feeling, etc.; as,

This razor looks sharp. She looks sad. He felt sore after it. I feel as strong as ever. The milk tastes sour. The name sounds familiar. The mixture smells sour.

(b). Adverbs, if you wish to express the manner in which an action is performed, or a feeling is manifested, or the extent to which a quality is exhibited; as,

He looked sharply after it. She looked sadly around the room. He felt the loss sorely. I felt it strongly. The milk tastes slightly of turnips. He sounded the note distinctly. His breath smelt strongly of liquor.

(4). It is better to avoid using *too* or *very* before words that are plainly perfect participles. Thus say:

He will be *much* (or *greatly*, not *very*) displeased when he hears about it. He was *too much* (or, *too seriously*) injured (not *too injured*) to be taken home.

241. Adverbs may be parsed as follows:

Sometimes I think that he would succeed better if he were not so strict.

Sometimes, Adverb of time, modifying the verb *think*.

better, Adverb of manner, comparative degree (*well*, *better*, *best*) modifying the verb *would succeed*.

not, Negative adverb, modifying the verb *were*.

so, Adverb of degree, modifying the adjective *strict*.

EXERCISE XLVII.

I. Parse the adverbs in the following:

1. I am much obliged to you for speaking out plainly. 2. They will soon come back, and they will be very glad to see you again. 3. I worked far harder than I had ever done before. 4. They would not come any farther. 5. He cares less for it now than he formerly did. 6. The higher we go the colder it gets. 7. I came here wholly on your account. 8. That happened long before you were born. 9. It was lying right in his path. 10. He does that only when he is angry.

II. Say whether the italicized words are adjectives or adverbs, and give your reason in each case:

1. The air feels *chilly*. 2. It will keep *better* in a cool cellar. 3. Don't you feel *well*? 4. I don't care *much* for that. 5. The plaster seems quite *hard*. 6. He rises very *early*. 7. She looked quite *ill*. 8. Are we late or *early*? 9. Your watch is too *fast*. 10. Don't walk so *fast*. 11. She looks *like* her cousin.

III. Write sentences using,

(a). *Little*, *more*, *best*, *first*, *right*, as adverbs, then as adjectives.

(b). The verbs *look* and *feel*, followed by an adverb modifying the verb, and then by an adjective modifying the subject.

IV. Correct any errors in the use of adjectives or adverbs and give your reasons:

1. He could do it easy enough if he wished. 2. He acted quite different from the rest. 3. How sweetly these roses smell! 4. The boat is plenty large enough. 5. Most all the girls in our class were at it. 6. It did seem kind of strange. 7. It was real mean to do that. 8. As sure as I am here he said so. 9. He didn't act quite fair in that matter. 10. Your garden looks beautifully this season. 11. He feels some better this morning. 12. It was that dark we could not see the horses' heads.

PREPOSITIONS.

242. Before dealing with any new matter in regard to prepositions, let us recall the main facts which we have already learned about them.

(1). A preposition is a word which connects a noun or pronoun, called its object, with some other word, usually a verb, noun, or adjective, in the same clause.

(2). A preposition forms with its object, and any words modifying the latter, a phrase which has the value of an adjective or an adverb modifying the word with which the preposition connects it.

(3). The pronoun which is the object of the preposition must be in the form required for the objective case; and hence prepositions are said to *govern the objective case*.

243. We may now add a few further statements in regard to prepositions.

As their number is small, most if not all of them express different relations; as,

You got there *before* me (time). He stood *before* me (place). He died *of* cholera (cause). He drank *of* it (partitive).

It is not worth while, therefore, trying to classify them.

244. The object of a preposition may be:

(1). Any word used with the value of a noun; as,

You must start at *once*. This will last for *ever*. It is by *far* the best. He walked from *here* to *there*. They will go from *bad* to *worse*.

(2). A phrase or a clause. Thus, if we observe the following sentences:

(a). Wait till *evening*. Wait till *after the match*.

(b). There is no alternative but *this*. There is no alternative but to *await his return*.

(c). The truth of *that* is evident. The truth of *what he says* is evident.

(d). He walked from *here* to *there*. He walked from *where I am standing* to *where you are sitting*.

we see that the italicized phrases and clauses have the same value and relation as the corresponding single words.

245. A number of phrases have the value of prepositions; as,

He stood *in front of* (before) me. I sat *by the side of* (beside) the chairman. He spoke *in opposition to* (against) the bill. He wrote to me *with reference to* (about) that matter.

These may be dealt with as separate words, but in the case of the following it is better to treat the phrase as a single word, and call it a **Phrasal Preposition**.

According to him we are all wrong. *As for* me it does not matter. *As to* that you may do as you choose. *Instead of* stopping he went faster. *Because of* that the entertainment was a failure.

246. The preposition precedes its object, except :

(1). With conjunctives and interrogatives. It always follows the conjunctive *that*, and may either precede or follow the others; as,

Here is the book *that* I was speaking of. That's the house *which* we live *in*, (or, *in which* we live). *Whom* do you sit *with*? or, *With whom* do you sit?

(2). Occasionally in poetry, and in a few idiomatic phrases; as,

He hunted the whole *town through* for one. He looked *it over* hurriedly.

247. We have already seen that the object, when it is a conjunctive pronoun, is often omitted, and sometimes the preposition with it; as,

Who was the girl (whom) you were talking to? The moment (in which) I opened the door the flames burst forth.

The preposition is also omitted colloquially in such expressions as :

This knife is (of) no use. (On) What day did you come? He did it (in) this way. (At) What time did they start?

248. Words sometimes acquire a prepositional value in consequence of the dropping out of other words; as,

He persisted in going (in) *despite* (of) her entreaties. He wrote me (a letter) *concerning* that matter.

249. Several other words in *ing* are now used as prepositions: as, *during, notwithstanding, regarding, respecting, pending, considering*; but they may all be shown to have been originally participles; as,

He would go notwithstanding the rain; that is, He would go, the rain notwithstanding (i.e., preventing) him.

250. In parsing a preposition, all that is required is to mention its object and the word with which it connects it; as,

Before noon he had learned the names of all the pupils.

before, Preposition, connecting its object *noon* with the verb *had learned*.

of, Preposition, connecting its object *pupils* with the noun *names*.

CAUTIONS.

251. One of the most difficult things to learn in any language is the correct use of prepositions; and as it is impossible to lay down general rules that would be of much service, the pupils should learn to observe and imitate the usage of good writers and speakers.

252. The following cautions will, however, if carefully attended to, enable them to avoid some of the commonest errors.

(1). Prefer *between* in speaking of two; *among* in speaking of several. In particular avoid such a use of *between* as in "What is the distance *between* each post?"

(2). Say *compare with* when the two things spoken of are of the same nature. Thus we may compare one book, answer, method, specimen, with another. Say *compare to* when the two things spoken of are of different natures, but have points of resemblance. Thus we compare *life* to a *journey* or to a *warfare*, a *ship* to a *bird*, a *warrior* to a *lion*. The common mistake is using *to* for *with*; as,

Our house is small *compared to* theirs.

(3). Use *differ with* only of opinion, as, "I beg to differ with the last speaker."

Two persons may differ with each other *on* a point, *about* or *with (in)* regard to a matter. Two persons or things may differ *from* each other *in* certain respects.

Say "different *from*" not "different *to*."

(4). Use *into* rather than *in* after *come, drop, fall, fly, break, throw*; as,

Come *into* the house at once. It fell *into* the mud. It broke *into* pieces. He threw them *into* the fire.

Avoid using *onto*. Say "He jumped *on* the sleigh."

(5). After *attended, accompanied, beset, overcome, overwhelmed, struck, surrounded*, etc.:

(a). Prefer *by* in speaking of persons, animals and things personified or represented as active *agents*; as,

"Attended by his followers," "accompanied by his hounds," "beset by enemies," "overcome by his opponents," "overtaken by the flames," "overwhelmed by the waves," "struck by a stone," "surrounded by foes."

(b). Prefer *with* in speaking of influences, and things regarded as the *means*; as,

"Attended with danger," "accompanied with words," "beset with difficulties," "overgrown with weeds," "overcome with grief," "overwhelmed with fear," "struck with the beauty," "surrounded with pleasures."

(6). Avoid using *for* immediately before the infinitive with *to*. Expressions like "What went ye out *for to* see?" were once perfectly correct, but are not sanctioned by modern usage.

(7). Be careful to say :

Accused *of* (not *with*) things; profit *by* (not *from*) the warning; conform *to* (not *with*) the rules; comply *with* (not *to*) the rules; take notice *of* (not *to*) something; to be sensitive *to*, but to be sensible *of*, things; to be angry *with* persons, *at* or *about* things; there is no need *of* (not *for*) things.

EXERCISE XLVIII.

I. Parse the prepositions in the following sentences :

1. I left the key of the desk on the table in my room. 2. He spoke to me about the matter at the close of the meeting. 3. In front of the house there is a row of poplars. 4. Towards noon they returned

to the camp with a fine string of fish. 5. For that reason nobody felt very sorry for either of them. 6. Which of you left this paper on the desk? 7. He was waiting at the office for you. 8. Some of us were awakened during the night by the thunder.

II. Say whether the italicized words are prepositions or adverbs, and give the relation in either case.

1. He came *down* the ladder and put *on* his coat. 2. Bring *in* some chips and light *up* the fire. 3. He fell *off* the ladder. 4. That will bring *about* a change. 5. We rowed *across* the river. 6. It's time for you to turn *over* a new leaf. 7. We walked *past* their door. 8. Look all *around* you.

III. Fill the blanks with the proper prepositions:

1. Your plan is quite different — mine. 2. There was not the least need — that expense. 3. It may be attended — serious consequences. 4. One of the boys fell — the dock yesterday. 5. See if you can profit — his example. 6. They accused him — having stolen it. 7. She was quite overcome — the heat. 8. He let it fall — the mud. 9. It is to be sold — auction.

IV. Write sentences illustrating the correct use of *compare to*, *with*; *call on*, *for*, *at*; *agree to*, *with*, *on*; *angry at*, *with*; *taste of*, *for*; *struck by*, *with*; *reconcile to*, *with*.

V. Correct any errors in the use of prepositions:

1. He went in the house to see about it. 2. He dropped it in the box. 3. They jumped onto the platform. 4. You must conform with our rules. 5. You must rid yourself from such notions. 6. I didn't take notice to that. 7. The property is to be equally divided between the four boys. 8. Don't be in a hurry to jump at a conclusion. 9. He was waiting for to tell us. 10. Yours is quite different to the rest.

CONJUNCTIONS.

253. We have already learned the following facts about conjunctions:

(1). Like prepositions they are connecting words, but while prepositions connect words, conjunctions connect sentences, the latter being then known as *clauses*.

(2). Some conjunctions, especially *and*, *or*, *but*, occasionally connect words or phrases that have the same grammatical value and relation; as,

He takes nothing but *bread* and *milk* for supper. *Gypsum*, or *plaster of Paris*, is found in large quantities.

(3). The second clause is very often not expressed in full; as,

He had looked the door and (he had) gone to bed. I shall do so if (it be) possible. It looks better now than (it looked) before.

(4). Some conjunctions are used to connect two or more clauses of the same nature or *order*, that is, in other words, *co-ordinate* clauses; while others are used to show that the clauses which they introduce are dependent on, or *subordinate* to, other clauses.

254. We may now notice that in accordance with the last-mentioned fact, conjunctions are commonly divided into two classes, namely, **Co-ordinating** and **Sub-ordinating**.

Under co-ordinating conjunctions we include all that join clauses, phrases, or words of the same grammatical value. Co-ordination is of four kinds; namely,

(1). **Copulative**, when the conjunction simply joins an additional statement that seems to follow naturally; as,

I handed him the money, *and* he put it in his pocket.

(2). **Adversative**, when the second statement is in opposition, as it were, to what might be expected; as,

I offered him the money, *but* he refused to take it.

(3). **Alternative**, when the second statement contains an alternative, or other possible course; as,

He paid the fine, *or* he would have been sent to jail. He would *neither* do it himself *nor* would he let me do it.

When *neither* or *nor* is used without the other in the sense of *and not*, it is better to regard the co-ordination as copulative; as,

Eye hath not seen *nor* ear heard (*and* ear hath not). Ye shall not eat of it, *neither* shall ye touch it (*and* ye shall not).

(4). **Causal**, which is of two kinds:

(a). When the second clause gives the *ground* for the statement or command made in the first; as,

Neither a borrower nor a lender be, *for* loan oft loses both itself and friend.

(b). When the second clause gives a *conclusion* drawn from the statement in the first; as,

You were the only one in the room, *and* therefore it must have been you.

In co-ordination of the latter kind, the connecting conjunction is often omitted; as,

He left you in charge; you are, therefore, responsible for it.

255. Co-ordinating conjunctions may couple subordinate clauses if these are of the same kind; as,

He said that he offered it to her *but* that she refused it. Here is a boy that was present *and* that heard him say so. If you had called for me, *or* if you had even sent me word, I would have gone.

256. Certain co-ordinating conjunctions that usually go in pairs are sometimes called **Correlative** conjunctions; as,

Both the doors *and* the windows were open. *Neither* the door *nor* the window was open. *Either* you *or* your brother will have to go. I don't know *whether* it was Tuesday *or* Wednesday.

The term *correlative* is also extended to include a conjunction and an adverb, or an adverb and a conjunction, used in this way; as,

Though he was alone *yet* he did not feel afraid. He excelled *alike* in classics *and* in mathematics. He was noted *not* for learning *but* for wealth. He was noted *not only* for learning *but also* for wealth.

257. Observe that the words *as well as* must sometimes be taken together as a **Phrasal Conjunction**; as,

The teacher *as well as* the pupil was mistaken.

while at other times they are to be parsed separately; as,

They behaved *as well as* the rest did.

Note the difference, therefore, in meaning and parsing between,

She sings *as well as* plays, and She sings *as well as* she plays.

258. We have already called attention to the fact that such words as *therefore*, *hence*, *otherwise*, acquire a conjunctive force in some cases, and are, therefore, classed by some as *conjunctions*. It is better, however, as we have said, to regard them as adverbs, and, if we call *where*, *when*, etc., *subordinating conjunctive adverbs*, we may distinguish *therefore*, *hence*, etc., as *co-ordinating conjunctive adverbs*.

259. Subordinate conjunctions connect the clauses which they introduce with other clauses on which they depend, and of which they really form part. They never connect phrases or words. They are sometimes divided into classes, according to the nature of the dependent clause, as conjunctions of *time*, conjunctions of *cause*, etc., but as the same conjunction, e.g., *that*, *as*, *since*, may begin different kinds of clauses it is not worth while to classify them.

260. Observe that when the conjunction *for* is properly used it introduces a clause which gives the ground or reason for making the preceding statement—the reason being given for its own sake, and as an independent addition. It is, therefore, *co-ordinating*. On the other hand, *because, since, as*, introduce a clause which gives the reason for an act or for a fact—the reason being regarded as an essential part of the statement. They are, therefore, *subordinating*. This distinction is, however, not always observed.

261. Some subordinating conjunctions, such as *before, after, since, till*, were originally prepositions, and acquired a conjunctive value in consequence of the omission of *that*. Thus, in older English, we frequently find such expressions as,

Before that Philip called thee, I saw thee,

where the *that* would now be omitted.

So, too, by the omission of *that* some participle and infinitive forms are coming to have the force of conjunctions; as,

I will go *provided* (that) you come with me. *Suppose* (that) he did say so, what does it matter? *Seeing* (that) there were so few they were allowed to go.

On the other hand, in consequence of the dropping out of the preposition *for* in the older *for that*, the conjunction *that* has come to have a causal force in some cases; as,

Now *that* we are all here, let us go to work; that is, Let us get to work now, *for that* (since) we are all here.

262. From the frequency with which *that* is used to introduce noun clauses, it is sometimes called the **Substantive** conjunction. Its use as a conjunction is understood to have grown out of its use as a demonstrative pronoun; as,

Pronoun. The earth is round; we can prove *that*. He must have done so; *that* is evident.

Conjunction. We can prove *that* (namely) the earth is round. *That* (namely) he must have done so is evident.

263. In parsing a conjunction, all that is necessary is to classify it and tell what it connects; as,

Several of the ladies started for the church, but before they had gone very far it began to rain.

but, Conjunction, co-ordinating, adversative, connecting the clauses of which the verbs are *started* and *began*.

before, Conjunction, subordinate, of time, connecting the clauses of which the verbs are *began* and *had gone*.

CAUTIONS.

264. (1). Avoid using *like, without, directly, as* conjunctions in place of *as, unless, as soon as*. Thus, say:

Do as (not *like*) I do. I will not go *unless* (not *without*) you come, too. I will send you word *as soon as* (not *directly*) I reach home.

(2). Avoid using *than* after *hardly*, *scarcely*, *different*, *prefer*. Thus, say:

Hardly had he left the room *when* (not *than*) the trouble began. He took a different view of it *from* (not *than*) what we did. I prefer *waiting* for her to *going* alone (not *to wait than to go*).

On the other hand be careful not to use *when* for *than* after *no sooner*. Thus, say:

No sooner had the train started *than* (not *when*) he remembered about it.

(3). Use *than* after *other*, *otherwise*, *rather*, *else*; as,

Nothing else *than* (not *but*) that would satisfy her.

(4). Avoid using *as* for *that*, as,

I don't know *that* (not *as*) I shall have time to call. Act so *that* (not *as*) you may show.

(5). Don't use *but what* if *that* or *but that* will serve; as,

I have no doubt *that* (not *but what*) he took it. I don't know *but that* (not *but what*) the other method would be simpler.

But what is, of course, perfectly correct, when the *what* is a conjunctive, equivalent to *that which*; as,

I have nothing but what I have shown you.

(6). *Neither* should be followed by *nor*, not by *or*; as,

Neither you nor he can do that.

(7). Avoid saying, "Try and do it," for "Try to do it." It is quite correct, however, to say, "Come and do it," "Go and do it," as in these cases we assume that the person can do the thing if he comes or goes.

(8). Be careful not to use *and* (*but*) *who*, and (*but*) *which*, unless a co-ordinate *who* or *which* clause precedes. Thus, do not say,

He spoke in a low voice, but which was heard quite distinctly; but, He spoke in a low but distinct voice; or, He spoke in a voice which was low, but which was heard quite distinctly.

(9). Avoid repeating the conjunction *that* unnecessarily, or substituting it for some other conjunction in a co-ordinate clause; as,

I fear *that* when he learns what has happened *that* he will be very angry. If anything of that kind were to happen, and *that* the paper were lost, *what* would you do?

EXERCISE XLIX.

I. Parse the conjunctions in the following:

1. You will not succeed unless you work harder. 2. He could neither eat nor sleep till he had heard the result. 3. I believe that she was offended because you did not invite her. 4. He came next, but he spoke so low that we did not hear him. 5. Though it was late, he offered to show it to them if they would wait. 6. The choice lies between you and him. 7. He was afraid that the dog might attack him as he was passing. 8. I'll show you another of a different style but of a better quality. 9. The train was late, or we should have been here sooner. 10. I can't tell you, for I do not know.

II. Say whether the italicized words are conjunctions, prepositions, or adverbs, and give the relation of each:

1. I told you *before* that I would do so. 2. They left soon *after* we came. 3. I'll wait *for* you, *for* I don't want to go alone. 4. I heard *since* that he was going to leave town. 5. *Ere* noon the snow had all disappeared. 6. Wait *till* the office opens. 7. Can't you wait *till* to-morrow? 8. Not long *after* another fire broke out in the same place. 9. The poor fellow sank *ere* the boat could reach him. 10. He has had charge of it *since* his father's death.

III. Point out the conjunctive adverbs, and say whether they have a co-ordinating or a subordinating force:

1. I was not at home when it happened. 2. You must do so, else you will get into trouble. 3. There wasn't a quorum, consequently we adjourned. 4. Where I live these flowers are quite common. 5. We did not need it, besides, it was too expensive. 6. It may be true, still, I can hardly believe it. 7. Tell us the reason why you took it. 8. It followed him wherever he went. 9. There are several points wherein he was clearly wrong. 10. They helped us, otherwise we should not have finished in time.

IV. Correct any errors in the use of conjunctions or of other words for conjunctions:

1. The train had hardly started than he remembered about it. 2. There is no doubt but what he has taken it. 3. Send me word directly you find it. 4. He would neither go himself or let me go. 5. Try and remember where you left it. 6. No other plan but that would have succeeded. 7. Hold it up so as all of us can see it. 8. He would not go without I would pay him. 9. If you had worked hard like we have, you'd think so, too. 10. We prefer to go by ourselves than to have his company. 11. I don't know as I shall go.

INTERJECTIONS.

265. Very little more needs to be said in regard to words of this class.

In support of our statement that they are really equivalent to sentences (59) we may notice that some of them

may be followed directly by phrases or clauses dependent on the implied thought or wish; as,

Hurrah for our side! Alas for maiden! Alas for judge! O for another chance! O that he were here to see it! Alas that he should be so foolish!

As pupils are often in doubt whether to write *O* or *Oh*, it may be well to notice that *Oh* is properly used to express pain, surprise, delight, or fear, and is regularly followed by an exclamation point; as,

Oh! How can I bear such a loss? Oh! That's what you are doing, is it?

while *O* is a sign of address, or is used in expressing a wish, and never takes an exclamation point directly after it; as,

Be it known unto thee, O King! O that I had wings like a dove!

EXERCISE L.—REVIEW OF PART II.

- I. (1). Is *writer* an inflected form of *write* or a derivative? Why?
- (2). Is *friendship* a derivative or a compound? Why?
- (3). Give all the inflected forms of *who*, *brother*, *say*.
- (4). Form, by using prefixes, derivatives from the following: *legal*, *probable*, *regular*, *certain*, *order*, *appear*, *lead*, *give*, *shore*.
- (5). Form, by using affixes, adjectives from *please*, *mischief*, *glory*, *quarrel*, *move*, *progress*, *minister*, *system*, *influence*, *explain*.
- (6). Form, by using affixes, nouns from *wide*, *high*, *agree*, *curious*, *probable*, *resist*, *vacant*, *define*, *hero*, *pronounce*.
- (7). Form adverbs from *true*, *gentle*, *weary*, *gay*, *heroic*, *natural*, *due*, *back*, *head*, *systematic*.
- (8). Form verbs from *civil*, *dark*, *clean*, *force*, *class*, *gain*, *accent*, *glad*, *memory*, *friend*.
- (9). Give nouns ending in the following affixes: *er*, *or*, *ee*, *ant*, *age*, *ity*, *ness*, *dom*, *ist*, *ship*.
- (10). Give adjectives ending in *ary*, *y*, *less*, *ly*, *ish*, *ward*, *ate*, *al*.
- (11). Form all the derivatives you can from *law*, *like*, *act*, *form*.
- (12). Form compounds containing the following: *some*, *sun*, *son*, *life*, *house*, *land*, *book*, *day*, *horse*, *sea*, *law*.

II. Write sentences using

- (1). *much, like, here, was* as nouns.
- (2). *well, early, only, stone* as adjectives.
- (3). *but, off, since, about* as prepositions.
- (4). *name, man, face, winter* as verbs.
- (5). *in, little, but, close* as adverbs
- (6). *for, since, till, ere* as conjunctions.
- (7). *that* as a demonstrative pronoun, *which* as a conjunctive pronoun, and *what* as an interrogative pronoun
- (8). *round* as a noun, an adjective, a verb, a preposition, an adverb.
- (9). *as* as an adverb, a conjunction, and a conjunctive pronoun.
- (10). *when* as a simple adverb and as a conjunctive adverb.

III. (1). Write the plural of *cargo, piano, two, valley, army, atlas, thief, chief, tooth, policeman, German, sheep, spoonful, 3, crisis, Mr., Lucy, chief justice, summons, phenomenon*.

(2). Give two examples each of nouns with no singular, nouns with no plural, nouns with two plurals, nouns retaining foreign plurals.

(3). Write the possessive singular and plural of *child, mouse, monkey, son-in-law, princess*.

(4). State the gender and give the corresponding gender form of *abbot, niece, marquis, doe, nun, hart, belle, executor, ewe, duke, wizard, spinster, earl, hind*.

(5). Give three examples each of proper nouns, abstract nouns, collective nouns, verbal nouns.

(6). Explain what is meant by personification, and give an example of it.

IV. Compare such of the following adjectives as admit of comparison : *dry, little, dead, distant, circular, double, thin, comfortable, royal, gay, many, shy*.

V. What is meant by *declining* a pronoun and by *conjugating* a verb ?

VI. Give an example of each of the following :

- (1). *there* used as an introductory expletive.
- (2). *it* representing a phrase.
- (3). *it* representing a clause.
- (4). *it* used with an impersonal verb.
- (5). *and* connecting words merely.
- (6). the historical present tense.

- (7). an adverb modifying a phrase.
- (8). an adverb modifying a clause.
- (9). a sentence containing all the parts of speech.
- (10). a sentence containing an adjective phrase, an adverb phrase, and a noun phrase.

VII. Write sentences using the following words as adjectives, participles, gerunds, and nouns respectively: *rising, living, burning*.

VIII. Underline the auxiliary verbs in the following:

1. Did you see what they did to it? 2. I had some, but I have given them all away. 3. You should not do that. 4. If it should rain what would you do? 5. He would not give it to me. 6. Were you there when these were caught?

IX. (1). Write the third singular of each tense of the indicative active, ordinary form, of the verb *say*.

(2). Write the third singular present indefinite active, present progressive active, present emphatic, present passive, and present progressive passive of the verb *take*.

(3). Write all the participles, active and passive, of the verbs *forgive, buy, bid*.

(4). Write all the infinitives, active and passive, of *draw* and *go*.

(5). Write the third singular present indefinite active and the imperfect participle active of *laid, lain, lost, ate, flown, besought, slew, born, tie, fled*.

(6). Write the third singular pluperfect indicative active of *begin, break, ride, wear, forget*.

X. Tell the mood of the italicized verbs:

1. *Be* careful not to lose it. 2. That will make him *be* more careful. 3. Blest *be* the tie that binds us. 4. I will lock up and *be* ready to go. 5. I told him to sit down and *be* quiet. 6. Beware lest it *be* too late. 7. He said that you *were* ill. 8. I wish that you *were* here. 9. He *could* not open the door. 10. He *could* do it if he wished.

XI. Classify the italicized words and give their relation:

1. I heard the boy *laugh*. 2. I heard the boy's *laugh*. 3. Sit *still* and stop *laughing*. 4. The air feels *chilly*. 5. He cried *like* a child. 6. They came from *far* and *near*. 7. Is it large *enough*? 8. Have you had *enough*? 9. He wrote *of* for *off*. 10. He picked *up* the money and ran *up* the lane. 11. She began writing *down* the names. 12. Not *finding* him there I came *home alone*. 13. He called out to the boys *below*. 14. *What* have you done with *what* I gave you? 15. He stood *right* in front of me. 16. The water was *scalding* hot. 17. I have sold *all but these*. 18. I left *long* before you did. 19. *What good* will that do? 20. The court must *needs* give sentence against the merchant *there*.

XII. Fill the ellipses in the following properly :

(a). With a preposition:

- (1). It looks quite different — what it did before
- (2). Your rod is not to be compared — mine.
- (3). I hope you will profit — these hints.
- (4). He accused me — having done it.
- (5). There was no need — all that expense.

(b). With *shall* or *will*, *should* or *would* :

- (1). — I tell him to call for it?
- (2). When — you be able to do it?
- (3). If the rope — break what — you do?
- (4). He has promised that it — not occur again.
- (5). If he — do that we — forgive him.
- (6). If she — call for us we — go with her.
- (7). I — feel much obliged if you — tell me.
- (8). He offered a prize to anyone who — guess it.
- (9). — you be sorry to leave school?
- (10). We were afraid we — not have time to call.

(c). With a conjunction:

- (1). He acted just — most boys would have done.
- (2). I don't know — that would be of any use.
- (3). I have neither seen him — heard from him since
- (4). You must not go — he gives you leave.
- (5). He had hardly left the room — the noise began.

XIII. Correct any errors in the following :

1. What sort of a bird is that? 2. It could not have laid there very long? 3. They would have hung him if they had caught him. 4. He told me he seen it laying on your desk. 5. Do you like those sort of pens? 6. Can we go when we finish this? 7. I can do that easy enough. 8. You have went over that lesson three times. 9. There is no doubt but what he took it. 10. Neither John or William was at school. 11. He has ten days leave of absence. 12. One of the boys dove from the pier. 13. Set up straight in your seat. 14. How beautifully the roses look! 15. The water had raised several inches.

PART III.

SYNTAX AND ANALYSIS.

266. We stated at the outset that grammar is the study of words as parts of sentences, and treats of their uses, forms, and relations.

We have now considered two of these subjects pretty fully and shall, therefore, in Part III. devote our attention specially to the third, namely, the relation which words bear to one another in sentences, and the influence that these relations have on their arrangement. This part of grammar is commonly called **Syntax** ("arranging together"), while the part that deals with the classification, formation, inflection, and uses of words is known as **Etymology**, a term which literally means "a true account."

267. Syntax, however, is closely connected with **Analysis**, which, as we learned in Part I., means separating a sentence into the parts of which the thought is composed, and showing the relation which these bear to one another. We shall, therefore, first try to give a connected and sufficiently full statement of the most important facts of syntax, and then carry our study of analysis a little further.

268. As inflections and relations are closely connected we shall naturally have more to say about the inflected parts of speech than about the others. Remembering, too, that pronouns are substitutes for nouns, we may expect to find that, generally speaking, the same laws of syntax apply to them as to nouns. We shall, therefore, begin with the syntax of these two parts of speech.

RELATIONS OF NOUNS AND PRONOUNS.

269. We have already learned that nouns and pure pronouns, that is pronouns that are not used also as adjectives, are commonly spoken of as having three cases, namely, nominative, possessive, and objective. As we cannot determine from the form of a noun, however, whether it is

in the nominative or objective we shall, wherever possible, use pronouns, such as *he*, *him*, to show the case.

THE SUBJECT.

270. We have already learned that the subject of a verb is put in the nominative case. If, however, we examine the following sets of sentences:

(a). *I believe that he is honest. We wished that she would do that. Be thou our guide. Blessed be he that doeth such things. If she were here she would do that.*

(b). *I believe him to be honest. We wished her to do that. He expected me to attend to it. The judge ordered her to be removed. It is time for us to start.*

we see that while it is true that verbs in the indicative, imperative, or subjunctive, the three *finite* moods (195), require their subjects to be in the nominative case, as *I*, *he*, *we*, *thou*, *she*, yet when an infinitive has a subject, as it may have after certain verbs or after the preposition *for*, that subject is in the objective case, as *him*, *her*, *me*, *us*.

We infer, then, that when nouns are similarly used, as they may be, except when the verbs are in the first or second person (all nouns used as subjects being of the third person, inasmuch as they are the names of things spoken of), they should be parsed similarly, as in the nominative or objective; as,

(a). *Nominative*: *I believe that the man is honest. The boys wished that the teacher would do that. Happy be thy dreams. Long live the Queen.*

(b). *Objective*: *I believe the man to be honest. The boys wanted the teacher to do that. The judge ordered the prisoner to be removed. We waited for the rain to stop.*

We may, therefore, state the first law of syntax as follows:

RULE I. A finite verb always has a subject in the nominative case; the subject of an infinitive, when it has one, is in the objective case.

271. The subject of a finite verb is commonly omitted with the imperative mood; as,

Come (you) here and show (you) it to me.

and sometimes, too, with the other moods after conjunctions; as,

He picked up the paper and (he) put it in his pocket. He was present but (he) took no part in it. It lasted longer than (it) was expected (to last).

THE PREDICATE.

272. We learned in Part I. that some verbs of incomplete predication are commonly followed by a noun or pronoun denoting the same person or thing as the subject. If now we examine the following sentences:

(a). It is *he*. It may have been *they*. I wonder *who* the man was?

(b). I know it to be *him*. We took it to be *them*. *Whom* do you take me to be.

we see that, as we might expect, the predicate pronoun is in the same case as the subject, and we infer again that the same is true of nouns; as,

(a). *Nominative*: My brother is a *doctor*. He will soon become a wealthy *man*. The plan proved a *failure*. She was made *secretary*. He is considered a competent *judge*.

(b). *Objective*: I know him to be a good *scholar*. We expected him to be made *president*. She wanted me to become *proprietor*. *Whom* do you consider to have been your best *pupil*?

We may, therefore, state the second rule as follows:

RULE II. A predicate noun or pronoun following a verb of incomplete predication and denoting the same person or thing as the subject agrees with the subject in case.

Observe that the rule applies to participles and infinitives as well as to *finite* verbs; as,

The Mayor having been elected *chairman* called the meeting to order. He was thought to be the *owner* of the property.

We may even have a predicate noun after a gerund, referring to an implied subject; as,

The hope of being made *captain* (that he might be made captain) encouraged him.

273. The mistakes most commonly made in the use of subject and predicate pronouns consist in using

(1). The objective for the nominative.

(a). When two subjects are coupled; as,

Her and I sat together at school. John and *him* carried it home. You and *me* can do that.

(b). When the verb is omitted after *than* or *as*; as,

She is a year older than *him*. I finished almost as soon as *her*.

(c). When *who* has a transitive verb between it and the verb of which it is the subject; as,

There's the boy *whom* we all thought *would win* the prize.

(d). After such expressions as "it is," "it was," "it may have been," etc.; as,

It isn't *her*. It wasn't *us*, but it may have been *them*.

(2). The use of the nominative for the objective with the infinitive; as,

Who do you take me to be? *Who* does he suppose to be the writer? I believe it to be *he* after all.

OTHER USES OF THE OBJECTIVE.

274. We learned in Part II. that the pronoun which follows a preposition or a transitive verb in the active voice must be in the objective case, and is said to be governed by the verb or preposition; as,

She spoke to *me*. Come with *us*. I met *her*. It followed *them*.

We learned, too, that many verbs may be used either transitively or intransitively; as,

Transitively: He broke the cord. He stopped me on the street.

Intransitively: The cord broke. The noise stopped at once.

275. We shall now notice the fact that verbs are followed by different kinds of objects, and that these are often distinguished by different names.

(1). The objects that we have used as examples so far, represent the person or thing directly affected by the action or feeling expressed by the verb, and are, therefore, spoken of as **Direct Objects**; as,

He struck *me*. She dislikes *him*. They had studied their *lessons*.

Remember that the direct object, when it is a conjunctive pronoun, is very often omitted; as,

Give it to the first man (that) you meet. He showed me the answer (that) he got.

(2). If now we examine the following sentences :

He offered me a ticket. His mother has made him a warm jacket.
I gave the horse a drink.

we see that a transitive verb in the active voice may not only have a direct object, as, *ticket, jacket, drink*, but be followed by another noun or pronoun, as, *me, him, horse*, preceding the direct object and representing the person or thing that the action is done to or for.

This second object is called the **Indirect Object**, and may be readily distinguished by observing that if we place it after the direct object we have to insert *to* or *for*; as,

He offered a ticket to me. His mother has made a jacket for him.
I gave a drink to the horse.

(3). In turning verbs which take both a direct and an indirect object into the passive it is properly the direct object that becomes the subject of the passive; as,

Active: They offered her the situation. His father had bought him a bicycle.

Passive: The situation was offered to her by them. A bicycle had been bought for him by his father.

but there is a growing tendency, which usage has already sanctioned in many cases, to use the indirect object as the subject of the passive form, so that we have two ways of expressing the same fact in the passive. Thus, for the active forms,

They allowed each candidate two trials. The judge asked me that very question.

we have not only the regular passive forms,

Two trials were allowed by them to each candidate. That very question was asked of me by the judge.

but also the following :

Each candidate was allowed two trials. I was asked that very question.

In the latter cases the direct object of the active is usually spoken of as the **Retained Object** of the passive

276. A transitive verb sometimes takes, to complete its meaning, a second object denoting the same person or thing as the direct object. Thus, in the sentences :

They elected him president. He wanted to call her Edith. We make that our rule. They all consider him a good teacher.

the words *president*, *Edith*, *rule*, *teacher* mean the same persons or things as *him*, *her*, *that*, *him*, and at the same time they complete the meaning of the verbs *elected*, *call*, *make*, *consider*.

A noun used in this way may be called an **Objective Complement**.

277. Observe that when such sentences are changed to the passive form the direct object becomes the subject, and the objective complement is in the predicate nominative or objective, according as it follows a finite verb or an infinitive; as,

Nominative: He was elected *president*. *Objective*: He wanted her to be called *Edith*.

278. Care must be taken not to confound instances in which a verb takes a direct and an indirect object with others in which the same verb takes a direct object and an objective complement; as,

(a). He made him (ind.) an offer (dir.) for it. He left her (ind., some money (dir.).

(b). We made him (dir.) secretary (comp.) of the club. He left her (dir.) heir (comp.) of all his property.

INTRANSITIVE VERBS USED TRANSITIVELY.

279. We have seen that when a verb is intransitive it cannot be used in the passive form, because, as it has no object there will be no subject for a passive. There are however, three ways in which verbs that are ordinarily intransitive may acquire a transitive force.

(1). They may take after them an object of kindred origin; as,

They ran a race. He lived a quiet life. Let me die the death of the righteous. I dreamt a dream.

Such objects are usually called **Cognate** objects, *cognate* meaning *kindred*, or *of the same origin*.

Under the head of *cognate* objects we may include some which, though not of kindred origin, are of kindred meaning, and which define the form or way in which the action manifests itself; as,

She *looked daggers* at him. The wind *blew a gale*. The fever *ran its course*. They *fought several battles*. He *struck a deadly blow*.

In a few instances a cognate object may become the subject of a passive verb; as,

The race was run in the forenoon. Several battles were fought.

(2). They may be used in a **causative** sense, that is, that of causing an action to take place. Thus, we have:

Intransitive: The soldiers marched across the square. The horse trotted home. It starved to death. They ran away.

Transitive: He marched the soldiers across the square. He trotted his horse past the judges. They starved it to death. He ran a splinter into his hand.

Under this head may be included such uses of verbs; as,

We laughed him out of it. They talked her into it. He fooled away his time. She sang herself hoarse.

(3). Intransitive verbs may be made transitive by combining them with a preposition; as,

He overcame them. She outlived him. It undergoes a change. I withstood their entreaties.

Similarly an intransitive verb and the preposition following it are often treated as equivalent to a transitive verb and put in the passive form. Thus, for the active,

Everybody laughed at him. His father sent for the doctor. Doctors often meet with such cases.

we have the corresponding passives,

He was laughed at by everybody. The doctor was sent for by his father. Such cases are often met with.

in which it is evident that the preposition and the verb are treated as forming one idea, and equivalent, in fact, to the verbs *ridiculed*, *summoned*, *found*.

The tendency in Modern English is to extend this practice, and even to treat groups consisting of a verb, a noun, or an adjective, and a preposition as forming a verb phrase.

Thus, for such active forms as,

She found fault with us. He took care of them. They lost sight of this fact.

instead of the regular passive forms,

Fault was found by her with us. Care was taken of them by him. Sight was lost of this fact by them.

usage not only sanctions but prefers,

We were found fault with by her. They were taken care of by him. This fact was lost sight of.

and in the following case there is no choice :

Active: We got rid of that difficulty. *Passive*: That difficulty was got rid of.

280. In a few cases intransitive verbs seem to be followed by an object, which is really dependent on a preposition understood; as,

Stand (on) your ground. He goes to school (in) that way. He would not look (at) me in the face. Come (by) the other way.

A few other verbs that are followed by an objective case but that cannot be used passively, should be regarded as intransitive; as,

He resembles her. An accident befell us. She survived them. That hat became her.

281. In this connection we may notice the use of the objective case (representing the dative of Old English) after the words *like*, *unlike*, *near*, *nigh*, whether adjectives or adverbs, and the interjection *ah*; as,

He doesn't look like me. She talks like him. It was quite unlike her to do that. Come nearer us. Ah me! what shall I do now?

Like and *near* should not be parsed as prepositions, inasmuch as *liker*, *likest*, *nearer*, *nearest* are used in precisely the same way; as,

He stood near (nearer) (nearest) me.

and prepositions do not admit of comparison.

ADVERBIAL OBJECTIVE.

282. We sometimes find after verbs, adjectives, or adverbs a phrase consisting of a noun with one or more modifying words used to express time, distance, value, or

amount or measurement of some kind, in the same way as an adverb would be used; as,

(a). *With verbs*: We lived there *a short time*. He carried it *a long distance*. I don't care *a straw*.

(b). *With adjectives*: The train is *an hour* late. The water is *five feet* deep. This is *a little bit* heavier.

(c). *With adverbs*: That happened *a few days* afterwards. They live *a long way* off. He came *a little* nearer.

In such instances it is impossible to tell from the form whether the noun is in the nominative or the objective, and we cannot test by putting a pronoun in its place, but from the fact that in most of such instances we may put a preposition before the noun, rearranging the words, if necessary; as,

We lived there *for* a short time. He carried it *for* a long distance. This is heavier *by* a little bit.

it is usual to regard these nouns as in the objective case; and as the phrases of which they form part have evidently the value of adverbs, the nouns are said to be in the **Adverbial Objective**, modifying the verb, adjective, or adverb, as the case may be.

An adverbial objective cannot be made the subject of a passive form.

283. It is to be kept in mind that what we have said about the use of the objective after verbs applies not merely to the *finite* moods, but also to infinitives, participles, and gerunds. Thus we may take as examples of objectives following these parts of the verb such instances as,

I offered *to pay him* the money. People *living such lives* can't be happy. They will find a difficulty in *electing him* Mayor. She is not able *to walk such a distance*. After *giving him a warning* we let him go. I heard your mother *telling you* the story.

284. We may now sum up the main facts that we have just been learning in regard to the use of the objective in the following rules:

RULE III. Prepositions and the active forms of verbs used with a transitive force are followed by the objective case.

Notes (a). Some verbs that take two objects (representing different persons or things) after their active forms may retain one after their passive forms, and it is then called a **Retained Object**.

(b). When a verb takes two objects one of them is called the **Direct Object**. If the other denotes a different person or thing it is an **Indirect Object**, if the same person or thing an **Objective Complement**.

RULE IV. The words *like*, *unlike*, *near*, *nigh*, whether used as adjectives or as adverbs, and the interjection *ah* are followed by an objective case representing the former *dative* case.

RULE V. Nouns expressing measure or manner are sometimes used with an adverbial value to modify verbs, adjectives, or adverbs.

285. The commonest violations of these rules are

(1). The use of the nominative for the objective when two objects are coupled; as,

Let you and *I* go for it. Nobody but Mary and *she* knew about it. Boys like you and *he* ought to behave better.

(2). The use of *who* for *whom* interrogatively; as,

Who did you see? *Who* were you talking to?

286. As many pupils have difficulty in deciding whether to use *who* or *whom* at the beginning of interrogative sentences, the following illustrations, which cover all possible cases, may prove helpful.

Who may be:

(1). Subj. nom. as, Who did you say gave it to you?

(2). Pred. nom. as, Who did you say it was?

Whom may be:

(1). Object of trans. verb, as, Whom did you see?

(2). Obj. of a preposition, as, Whom did you give it to?

(3). Subj. of an infin., as, Whom do you believe to be the author?

(4). Pred. obj. after an infin., as, Whom do you take me to be?

APPOSITION.

287. A noun, usually with a word, or phrase, or both, modifying it, is often used with a sort of adjective force after another noun to describe or identify the person or thing referred to. Thus, in the sentences,

My brother *William* lives in Hamilton. He sold it to Mr. Wilson, the *grocer*. I met Miss Brown, a former *pupil* of the school.

the italicized nouns with their accompanying modifiers are added to make plain who is meant, and are, therefore, said to be in **apposition** ("placed beside") with the preceding nouns.

If now we use an inflected pronoun in a similar way, as,

I bought it from Mr. Smith. *him* that lives in the corner house. Miss Thompson, *she* that won the medal last year, has been appointed.

we see that, as we might expect, the appositive is in the same case as the noun with which it is in apposition.

A noun may be in apposition with a pronoun; as,

I, John Brown, hereby declare that, etc. Do *you*, a comparative stranger, expect *me*, an old resident, to believe that story?

A noun may even be in apposition with a preceding statement; as,

The time had expired, a *fact* of which he was not aware.

We may, therefore, state as a rule,

RULE VI. A noun or pronoun added to another noun or pronoun for the purpose of describing or identifying the person or thing is said to be in apposition with it, and agrees with it in case.

NOMINATIVE OF ADDRESS.

288. A noun or pronoun may be used in the nominative case simply to name the person (or thing personified) addressed; as,

O *Thou* that hearest prayer. O *ye* of little faith. Come here, my boy. What do you say, *gentlemen*!

We may state it, therefore, as a rule,

RULE VII. A noun or pronoun used merely to show who is spoken to is said to be in the nominative of address.

NOMINATIVE ABSOLUTE.

289. Lastly, we sometimes find a noun or pronoun used as the principal word of a group that has no direct grammatical connection with the rest of the sentence; as,

I had to go alone, *he* being unable to accompany me. The men went to work again, *we* having guaranteed their pay. The *day* being fine, they all went for a walk. That *point* having been settled, we took up the next.

Such a noun or pronoun is said to be in the **Nominative Absolute** (absolute meaning *detached* or *freed from*), though in reality, as we see, it is the whole phrase and not the noun or pronoun that is detached from grammatical connection with the rest of the sentence.

It will be noticed that the nominative absolute is usually accompanied by a participle. Sometimes, however, the participle is omitted; as,

In they came, one (coming) after another. He lay down, his heart (being) heavy with sorrow.

290. Although the absolute phrase is not connected grammatically with the rest of the sentence it is in thought, inasmuch as it expresses some accompanying circumstance regarded as a cause, condition, concession, etc.

We may, therefore, now state as another rule,

RULE VIII. A noun or pronoun is sometimes used as the principal word in a group which, though not directly connected with the rest of the sentence, expresses some accompanying circumstance, and it is then said to be in the **Nominative Absolute**.

PECULIAR USES.

291. (1). In such a sentence as,

He that hath ears to hear let him hear.

we see that, owing to a change in the construction of the sentence, a nominative that was apparently intended for a subject is left without any relation, being replaced by another noun or pronoun. This idiom, however, though found in standard literature, should be avoided.

(2). We sometimes find a sort of exclamatory nominative (or objective); as,

The *rascal!* I'll punish him for that. The foolish *fellow!* What good would that do?

THE POSSESSIVE CASE.

292. We have already learned that the possessive case of nouns and pronouns is used somewhat like adjectives, to limit the application of a noun by denoting possession; as,

He borrowed *Henry's* knife. This is the *children's* room. They try *one's* patience sorely. I pity *their* lot who come last.

This may be stated in the form of a rule,

RULE IX. A noun or pronoun limiting another noun by denoting possession is put in the possessive case.

293. The possessive is used with gerunds as well as with nouns. Thus we say :

There is no use in *my* (not *me*) saying anything. Is there any hope of the *Council's* (not *council*) passing such a by-law? On account of *his* (not *him*) having done this a change was made.

294. When two nouns in the possessive case are in apposition it is usual to add the sign of the possessive to one of them only; as,

(a). Call at *Wilson's*, the *baker's*, shop on your way home. What is *your friend's*, the *doctor's*, opinion?

(b). He buys his hats at *Henderson's*, the well-known King Street *hatter*. For *Herodias's* sake, his brother Philip's wife. For *your* sake, the woman that he loved, I am come.

In the first method we think of the two nouns as forming one name, and put the sign of the possessive at the end, just as in,

These are the *Duke of York's* orders. He took *somebody else's* cap.

The second form is not idiomatic and should be avoided in ordinary English, as may easily be done; e.g.,

He buys his hats from *Henderson*. For the sake of *Herodias*.

295. The noun on which the possessive depends is often omitted, especially in colloquial English; as,

I bought this at *Wilson's*. Here is *John's*, where is *yours*?

Remember the difference pointed out in Part II. between such forms as,

We called at *Smith and Henderson's* (one place). We called at *Smith's and Henderson's* (two places).

296. In such examples it is easy to supply a suitable noun and so to account satisfactorily for the use of the possessive. We have, however, a peculiar idiomatic use of the possessive case of nouns and pronouns which cannot be quite satisfactorily explained; as,

That tongue of *John's* will get him into trouble some day. This poor head of *mine* is aching yet with the noise.

Such expressions may have been formed by a false analogy in imitation of others in which it is easy to supply a word; as,

"That horse of *John's* (horses)," i.e., "that one of *John's* horses." "This finger of *mine* (of my fingers)," i.e., "this one of *my* fingers."

It is useless, however, to try to parse the words separately and it will be sufficient to treat the preposition and the possessive as an *idiomatic double possessive*.

297. In Part II. we drew attention to the difference between such forms as,

"A photograph of Mary (of her)," meaning a likeness of her, and "A photograph of Mary's (of hers)," meaning one belonging to her.

So "A story of the doctor," is one told about him, while "A story of the doctor's," is one told by him.

298. We may now sum up the different case relations of nouns and pronouns in tabular form; thus,

A noun or, with a few exceptions, a pronoun may be

Nominative	{	(1). Subject of a finite verb.
		(2). Pred. after finite verb.
		(3). In apposition.
		(4). Of address.
		(5). Absolute.
Possessive		Limiting a noun or a gerund.
Objective	{	(1). Object of a trans. verb.
		(a) direct object, (b) indirect object,
		(c) retained object, (d) cognate object, (e)
		objective complement.
		(2). Object of a preposition.
		(3). In apposition.
	{	(4). Subject of an infinitive.
		(5). Predicate after an infinitive.
		(6). Adverbial.

EXERCISE L.

I. Select and classify the nominatives in the following:

1. Where are you going, children? 2. Then out spake brave Horatius, the captain of the gate. 3. The afternoon being wet, the attendance was small. 4. Your friend, Miss Brown, was made treasurer. 5. Now, Tom, be a brave boy. 6. The concert proved a failure. 7. The war having come to an end, all prisoners will be released. 8. There are only three girls in the class. 9. Being the only visitor present, he was asked to take the chair.

10. For he whom royal eyes disown,
When was his form to courtiers known.

II. Select and classify the objectives in the following:

1. I bought them from Mr. Jones, the tailor. 2. Bring me the paper that you will find lying on the desk. 3. He called me a thief because I took it without asking permission. 4. The men were paid their wages this evening. 5. I dreamt a horrible dream last night. 6. She is nearly an inch taller than you. 7. We are waiting for the rain to stop. 8. I suspected him of having told her the answer. 9. We expected him to be made captain. 10. You can't do it that way.

11. When he was asked that question he made no reply. 12. They left us no choice. 13. We are going to make him umpire. 14. I believe him to be the cleverest boy in the class. 15. I'll wait a few minutes longer.

Parse the nouns and pronouns in the following :

1. Heshowed me another way of working the question. 2. Suspecting this to be the case we waited a little while to see what they would do with it. 3. Your brother's new clerk seems a nice fellow. 4. Let us make him chairman of the meeting. 5. What was your motive for telling him such a falsehood? 6. Do you know whom he has appointed agent for this county? 7. Whose bicycle is that nearest the door? 8. There stood the rivals, face to face. 9. Move your chair a little farther this way, Mary. 10. Which store is he in, Brown's or Clark's? 11. Remember, gentlemen, that this is the last chance that you will have this year of seeing it. 12. He thanked the electors for the honor they had done him in electing him reeve. 13. They sat there like dummies, each waiting for the other to speak first. 14. Paper like that is too rough. 15. He started for home, his dog following him. 16. They were offered their choice. 17. The crop having failed, there was much suffering. 18. Appoint a person whom you know to be competent to manage the business. 19. He had not seen the notice of the Empress of Austria's death. 20. Your bicycle weighs nearly two pounds more than Tom's.

IV. Correct all errors in the case of nouns or pronouns, and give your reasons :

1. Haven't I as good a right to it as her? 2. Is there any chance of him passing the examination? 3. Who are you girls waiting for? 4. Was it her that told you that? 5. It is neither the Chairman nor the Secretary's duty. 6. You may ask whoever you like. 7. They all thought so except her and I. 8. You are not any worse off than us. 9. Jack and him are in partnership. 10. There was no use in us waiting any longer. 11. He would not accept of any remuneration. 12. Their rates are lower than any other Company. 13. Between you and I that looks suspicious. 14. I mean the other Mr Brown, he that lives in W. Street. 15. I guess that you were to blame as much as her.

V. Fill the blanks correctly with *who* or *whom*, and give your reasons :

- (1). That's the boy — we all thought would win it.
- (2). — did he want to see?
- (3). — did he say is the agent for the Company?
- (4). I have no idea — the writer is.
- (5). — do you think I got it from?
- (6). — do you suppose to be the owner?
- (7). — did the rest of them take you to be?

AGREEMENT.

299. We have now dealt as fully as seems necessary with the relations that nouns bear to the other words in the

sentence, but there is one more point to be considered in regard to pronouns, namely, the relation which they bear to their antecedents. This, however, can be more conveniently dealt with when we are considering the relations of verbs to their subjects.

AGREEMENT OF VERBS WITH THEIR SUBJECTS.

300. We have already learned in Part II. that in some of the tenses of the indicative mood verbs undergo certain changes of form to correspond with the number and person of the subject.' Thus we say,

He is here but *they are* absent. *I was* afraid that *we were* late.

where it is evident that the change from *is* to *are* and *was* to *were* is due to the change in the number of the subject. And again we say,

I am sorry that *he is* not here.

where it is plain that the change from *am* to *is* is caused by the change in the person of the subject.

Although, owing to the loss of inflections in Modern English, our verbs now undergo very few such changes, that made in the third singular of the present indefinite and the present perfect being the only one of common occurrence, yet because such changes were at one time made in the subjunctive and imperative moods also, we usually speak as if all three moods were still subject to such changes. Hence, as we saw (195), we call these three the **Finite Moods**, and state as a rule of syntax :

RULE X. A finite verb agrees with its subject in number and person.

301. While the infinitive may have a subject in the objective case we see by examples such as the following :

He believes *me to be* competent. They want *you to be* present. I have found *them to be* suitable.

that its form is not affected by a change in the number or person of the subject.

NUMBER.

302. As far as the number of the subject is concerned we shall see that it is the *meaning* rather than the *form* that determines it.

(1). Thus, while the plural form of nouns is usually followed by the plural form of the verb; as,

The boys were present. There are several mistakes in it. Many names have been added.

Yet in sentences like the following:

Ten *dollars* is enough for it. Three *miles* is too far to go. Two *thirds* of the crop *was* destroyed. Johnston's "*Lives of the Poets*" is in the library. *Wolves* is the plural of *wolf*.

we put the verb in the singular in each case, because we are thinking of a value, a distance, an amount, a book, a word, respectively.

(2). Similarly while two singular nouns coupled by *and* are usually followed by a plural verb; as,

Tom and Harry have come to see you. Both the door and the window were open. Bread and milk are furnished at cost.

yet we say,

Bread and milk is all they have for supper. A needle and thread was given her. His friend and biographer tells us.

because we mean one article of food, one article for use, and one person respectively; and, again, we say,

Every door and window was open. Not a door and not a window was open. For thine is the kingdom, and the power and the glory.

because we are thinking of each subject separately.

(3). Again, while we say,

The committee consists of seven members. The jury has given a sealed verdict.

because we are thinking of the committee and the jury as a unit in each case, we say,

The committee were discussing the proposal. The jury have not been able to agree.

because we are thinking of the different members of the committee and the jury.

(4). Again, we say,

The captain as well as the men was to blame. The captain, and not the men, was to blame.

but

The men as well as the captain were to blame. The men, and not the captain, were to blame.

because we regard the part before the connective as the subject of the verb.

Guard against using a plural verb in such sentences as,
The teacher with a few of the older pupils *was* (not *were*) busy.

(5). When singular nouns are connected by "neither—nor," "either—or," the verb is put in the singular; as,
Neither he nor his wife *was* there. Either he or she *owns* it.
because the effect of the conjunctions is to make us think of the subjects separately.

If the subjects are of different numbers it is better to repeat the verb; as,

Either the captain *is* to blame or the men *are*.

303. Observe and guard against the tendency to use

(1). The plural form of the verb for the singular, after "each," "every," "either," "neither," "not one," "nobody but," "nothing but," when a phrase containing a plural follows; as,

Each of the candidates *were* allowed two trials. Not one of them *were* missing. Nobody but the speakers *were* allowed on the platform.

(2). The singular form of the verb for the plural

(a). after "more than one"; as,

More than one instance *has* happened.

(b). when the subject follows the verb; as,

There *is* several vacant houses on that street.

PERSON.

304. As to person, since all nouns used as subjects are the names of things spoken of, and are, therefore, of the third person, it is only in the case of pronouns that there can be any difficulty. Even with these when used singly, mistakes are seldom made; the commonest, perhaps, being the colloquial "Says I," and "Thinks I to myself."

When two subjects of different persons are connected by *or* or *nor* it is better to repeat the verb. Thus, instead of,

Either he or I *am* to blame,

it is better to say,

Either he *is* to blame, or I *am*.

PRONOUNS AGREEING WITH THEIR ANTECEDENTS.

305. So far we have assumed that a pronoun is always of the same person. If, however, we examine sentences like the following:

I who (that) *am* speaking have seen it. He who (that) *is* innocent has no need to fear.

we see that the verbs which have *who* (*that*) for their subject change their form according to the person of the antecedent, and that the conjunctive must be regarded as changing its person to agree with the antecedent.

So, too, in the following:

Any girl *who* has done her work may go. Here is a bird which has lost its mate. We *who* have finished our work may go.

we see that the antecedent affects the gender and number as well as the person of the pronouns relating to it in the following clause.

306. Although this agreement of pronouns can be shown only in particular instances, yet it is usual to speak of it as if it applied to all pronouns, and we therefore state as a rule of syntax,

RULE XI. Pronouns agree in gender, number and person with the nouns or pronouns to which they refer.

307. The commonest violations of this rule are,

(1). The use of the plural forms *they*, *their*, etc., after such singular antecedents as "each," "everyone," "any one," "not one," "either," "neither," "not a person," "nobody but," "nothing but," "A. as well as B."; as,

Neither of the girls knew *their* lessons. If any one wants it let *them* say so. Nearly every one present offered *their* services.

Observe that in sentences like the last two the proper way to correct or avoid the error is not to say "his" or "her," but either to use the masculine form simply, as is done in laws and regulations, or to change the antecedent to a plural form; as,

If anyone wants it let *him* say so. Nearly *all* present offered their services.

(2). The use of the singular form *his*, *her*, etc., instead of *their*, etc., after such expressions as "more than one," "one of the words that," e.g.,

More than one girl *has* torn *her* dress on that nail. It is one of the birds that *builds its nest* in barns.

In the case of "more than one," it is usually better to supply the plural noun after *more*; as,

More girls than one have torn their dresses.

308. Note the difference in form, punctuation, and meaning between,

One of the *clerks who sleep* in the store heard it; AND One of the clerks, *who sleeps* in the store, heard it.

309. Sometimes both the verb and the pronoun are put in the wrong person, through a mistake as to the antecedent of the conjunctive. Thus,

I am not a man that always *want* my own way.
should evidently be,

I am not a man that always *wants* his own way.
because the conjunctive clause is plainly attached to and restrictive of *man* not *I*.

In sentences like the following:

It is I that *is* (*am*) to blame. It is you that *is* (*are*) to blame.

both forms are sanctioned. The real antecedent of *that* is *it*, but the verb is commonly attracted into the person of the *I* or *you*.

310. The pronoun as well as the verb referring to collective nouns may be either singular or plural, according to the meaning, but care must be taken not to combine the two forms in one sentence. Thus, the following are wrong:

Has the jury given in *their* verdict yet? The committee *which* was appointed to deal with the matter *state* so in *their* report.

311. Similarly, care must be taken in advertisements, reports, resolutions, letters not to combine the verb and pronoun forms belonging to different modes of expression.

Thus the following resolution,

That this society desires to record its conviction that by the removal of A.B. we have lost one of our most active and useful members.

is wrong, and should be either,

That this society desires to record its conviction that by the removal of A.B. it has lost one of its most active and useful members.

or

That we as a society desire to record our conviction that by the removal of A.B., we have lost one of our most active and useful members.

EXERCISE LI.

I. Correct any errors in the number or person of the verbs or pronouns in the following:

1. Nothing but balls and parties were talked of. 2. You are the boy that are most to blame. 3. Was you there when he did it?

4. One can hardly keep their temper in such cases. 5. There has been several cases of it this term. 6. One of the girls that boards there told me. 7. The Chairman as well as the Secretary had given their consent. 8. Is there more than one copy of it? 9. Either of these girls will lend you theirs. 10. It is one of the best novels that has been published this year. 11. If anyone is not satisfied they may return the picture. 12. Every day, and in fact every hour, bring their changes. 13. Nobody but the examiners are allowed to see the marks. 14. There is several other points to be considered. 15. Is it ignorance or carelessness that cause such blunders? 16. What shall I do if neither of them are there? 17. He is one of the men that will never acknowledge his mistakes. 18. Efficiency and not numbers are the proper test. 19. Each of us have met such cases in our own experience.

20. Who art thou? Speak! that on designs unknown,
While others sleep, thus range the camp alone.

II. Which of the italicized forms is correct and why?

1. Physics *is* (*are*) required at this examination. 2. It is you that *deserve* (*deserves*) to be punished. 3. *Was* (*were*) there more than one person hurt? 4. A block and tackle *was* (*were*) needed to lift it. 5. The public *is* (*are*) invited to attend.

III. Re-write each of the following correctly in two ways:

(1). The undersigned begs to announce that he has removed his office to the Arcade, where I shall be glad to see all my old customers who will favor me with a call.

(2). The Treasurer begs to call the attention of the Council to a matter which in my judgment requires your immediate attention.

(3). That the Council at this its first meeting since his death records our sincere sorrow at the loss which we have sustained.

SEQUENCE OF TENSES.

312. Besides the agreement of verbs with their subjects there is a sort of agreement in tense between the verbs in subordinate clauses and those in principal ones. This agreement, which is often spoken of as **Sequence of Tenses**, can hardly be stated satisfactorily in the form of rules, but may be illustrated by sentences containing,

(a). Indirect narration; thus,

He *says* that he *does*, (*has done*), (*will do*) that, BECOMES He *said* that he *did* (*had done*), (*would do*) that.

(b). Conditional clauses; thus,

I *will do* so if I *can* (if they *ask me*), BECOMES I *would do* so if I *could* (if they *asked me*).

(c). Clauses of purpose; thus,

I *do* (*have done*) (*will do*) so that all *may see*, BECOMES I *did* (*had done*) so that all *might see*.

313. Observe, however, in connection with (a) that it is quite correct to say,

He *says* that he *did* (*was doing*) (*had done*) that,

and that if the subordinate clause expresses a *general* truth the verb remains in the present after a past tense in the principal clause; as,

He *told* (*had told*) them that heat *expands* metals.

Guard against the common error of using *might* instead of *may* after a present perfect in the principal clause; as,

I *have sent* him word so that he *may* (*not might*) be ready.

314. Sometimes a mistake is made by using a subjunctive mood in the subordinate clause with an indicative in the principal clause; as, *

Perhaps if you *were* to ask him he *will* lend it,

which should be either "if you ask him," or "he would lend."

315. As an intention, expectation, or hope refers to the future, verbs or phrases expressing any of these ideas should be followed by the present and not by the present perfect infinitive. Thus say,

I intended to *write* (*not have written*) you yesterday. He expected to *hear* (*not have heard*) the result sooner. We were in hopes to *see* (*not have seen*) her at the meeting.

ADJECTIVES.

316. As English adjectives except *this* and *that* no longer change their form to agree with nouns or pronouns there is little to be said about their syntax.

We have already stated two uses of adjectives; namely,

(a). **Attributive**, in which the adjective precedes the noun and is attached directly to it; as,

A *kind old* lady took *good care* of the *little* boy.

(b). **Predicative**, in which the adjective is connected with the noun by means of a verb. A predicative adjective is usually either a *subjective complement*; as,

The boy was *lazy*. The witness turned *pale*. It was *left open*.

or an *objective complement*; as,

I believe the man to be *honest*. That made the teacher *angry*. Do you call that girl *pretty*? He wanted it to be *left open*.

To these we now add a third use; namely,

(c). **Appositive**, in which the adjective is used with the noun in much the same way as a noun in apposition is used. An appositive adjective may either follow or precede the noun, but is not used alone, either being coupled with another adjective, or having a phrase attached to it; as,

The child, *cold and hungry*, began to cry. *Glad* of an excuse, the nurse left the room. Some, *tired* of waiting, went home.

The great majority of adjectives can be used in all three ways with nouns, but an adjective is rarely used attributively with a pronoun, and a few, like *afraid*, *awake*, cannot be used attributively at all.

317. Predicate adjectives sometimes seem to have partly the force of adverbs modifying the verb; as,

The bugle call *rang out loud and clear*.

When so used they may be called **Adverbial Predicate Adjectives**.

Participles are often used in the same way; as,

He came *running* to tell me.

CONJUNCTIONS.

318. We have already learned that conjunctions may be divided into two classes; namely,

(1). **Co-ordinating**, which connect clauses and sometimes words or phrases of the same nature.

(2). **Subordinating**, which connect subordinate clauses with other clauses, on some word of which they are dependent for their relation.

319. Mistakes are often made, however, by using co-ordinate conjunctions to couple parts that are not of the same nature or form. Thus we find them coupling,

(a). Dissimilar pronominal forms; as,

He is a man *of whom* I have often heard, but I have never seen *him* (*but whom* I, etc.).

(b). Different moods; as,

If there *be* time at the close and no one *objects* I will show you.

(c). Words or phrases with clauses; as,

A new house on West Street, and *which* the family recently moved *into*, was burned down last night. *The room being* cold, and *as there were only a few present*, we adjourned. He agreed to lend it, and *that he would make no charge for it*.

EXERCISE LII.

I. Point out and correct any errors in the coupling or sequence of tenses or moods in the following:

1. As I never saw one before I was quite interested. 2. There are more here than I expected there would have been. 3. He could not tell me what the capital of the Dominion was. 4. If he were really guilty he deserved all he got. 5. I have put them here that they might be out of the way. 6. It was his duty to have kept order. 7. How far did you say it was from Toronto to Montreal? 8. The boy did not seem to know what fear was. 9. I meant to have told him about it. 10. If you would only have patience you will succeed.

II. Select the adjectives and participles and say whether they are attributive, appositive, or predicative:

1. Next day his arm felt stiff and sore. 2. Pale with fear, the man stood perfectly still. 3. Some boy had left the gate open. 4. The boy, finding himself alone, grew nervous. 5. Few and short were the prayers they said. 6. The spectators, silent and trembling, awaited the fatal word. 7. Many were the attempts made to escape. 8. The weather continued cold all that week. 9. The poor creature, unable to escape, had perished. 10. Exhausted by the struggle, he was easily captured.

III. Point out and correct any instances of want of proper co-ordination:

1. A rhombus is a four-sided figure having its sides equal but its angles are not right angles. 2. You promised to take care of it and that you would not lend it. 3. It contains much that is new and which you will find helpful. 4. Having received notice to vacate our present premises and as we wish to get rid of our surplus stock, we shall hold a clearing sale. 5. They have bought the old church and which they are going to turn into a school house. 6. Persons who read the report and that don't know him might think so. 7. Here's a boy who is quite clever but he is very careless. 8. They learned to smoke and other vices.

POSITION.

320. Anything else that we have to say in regard to syntax has to do mainly with the position or the number of words in a sentence.

Owing to the loss of inflection in English the relation of the words and consequently the meaning of the sentence is determined by their position oftener than by their form. It is evident, therefore, that the proper arrangement of words is a matter of very great importance.

321. In determining the proper placing of words a good writer usually keeps three objects more or less in view; namely: (1) that the meaning shall be correct and clear,

(2) that the form of the statement shall be impressive, (3) that the sound shall be pleasing to the ear.

Grammar, however, concerns itself with only the first of these, the other two belonging to what is called **Rhetoric**.

322. As we have already, in treating the different parts of speech, dealt with the positions which they usually occupy in regard to one another, we shall now merely call special attention to a few cases in which mistakes may cause a sentence to be **ambiguous**, that is, capable of bearing more than one meaning.

(1). A conjunctive clause should, if possible, be placed next to its antecedent. Thus, instead of

(a). It will relieve his *mother's* anxiety, *who* has been fretting, etc. say "the anxiety of his *mother*, *who*, etc."

(b). A man is no gentleman who would do that. say "A man who would do that is, etc."

(2). Adverbs, and adverb and adjective phrases should be so placed that there will be no doubt as to their relation. Thus, in

I Λ urged him *earnestly* to consider the proposal Λ we can't tell which verb *earnestly* is meant to modify, while by putting it in either of the positions marked Λ the relation and the meaning will be quite plain. So in

Λ I will explain Λ what happened in a few moments, the phrase is rightly placed if it is meant to modify *happened*, but if it is meant to modify *will explain* it should stand in either of the positions marked Λ .

Note the tendency to misplace the word *only* by putting it before the verb, no matter what it is meant to modify; as,

I only know three people in the room.

Observe, too, the common mistake of saying

"I *never* remember hearing it," for "I don't remember *ever* hearing it."

(3). When an adverb modifies an infinitive it is usually better to avoid putting it between the *to* and the verb.

Thus, instead of

I haven't time to fully explain it,

say "fully to explain," or "to explain it fully."

(4). In using pairs of correlative words (255) be careful to see that each member of the pair is followed by the same part of speech. Thus,

(a). Not "He neither answered my letter nor my telegram," but "He answered neither my letter nor my telegram."

(b). Not "I am not doing this for fun, but for profit," but "I am doing this not for fun but for profit."

PLEONASM AND ELLIPSIS.

323. As the meaning of a sentence depends partly on the number of words we use, we may note that there are two faults to be guarded against.

(a). **Pleonasm** (or **Redundancy**), that is, the use of unnecessary words.

(b). **Improper Ellipsis**, that is, the omission of words that are needed to make the meaning clear.

324. We shall not attempt to give special rules for the avoidance of these faults. The general principles to be observed are:

(1). If a word or phrase is redundant, and adds nothing to the clearness, force, or melody of the sentences, omit it, as in the case of the italicized words in the following:

He has *got* the letter in his pocket. In what year was he born *in*? I don't remember *of* another instance. He laid it *down* on the table. *There are* not many know about it.

(2). If the omission of a word, phrase, or clause would leave the meaning ambiguous or obscure the ellipsis should not be allowed. Thus,

I have no more control over him than you,
should be "than I have over you," or "than you have over him."

325. Under the head of pleonasm we may include what we call **double negatives**; as,

Neither you *nor nobody* else can do that. It *isn't* here I *don't* think. It *isn't hardly* large enough. He went through it *without scarcely* making a mistake (omit *scarcely*, or say *almost without*).

326. In regard to ellipses we may give the following cautions:

(1). Avoid ending a sentence with the *to* of an infinitive; as,

I haven't seen it and I don't want *to* (see it).

(2). In coupling different tenses, voices, numbers, etc., see that each part is fully enough expressed; as,

I never have (agreed) and I never will agree to that. One was killed and several were wounded. He may have been deceived by that and (may have) thought that they were here.

(3). In comparing two persons or things say,

NOT "One is as good if not better than the other." "One is better or at least as good as the other." BUT "One is as good as the other, if not better." "One is better than the other, or at least as good."

EXERCISE LIII.

I. Omit any redundant words in the following:

1. We drove as fast as ever we could. 2. He will be here in the latter end of the week. 3. I don't know from whence it came. 4. Whenever he comes in she always leaves the room. 5. The two boys were both absent. 6. There were over thirty teachers applied for it. 7. I don't recollect of an instance. 8. It must be several years ago since I saw one.

II. Supply words where necessary in the following:

There were several girls but only one boy. 2. He hasn't done it and isn't likely to. 3. He showed us both a front and side view of it. 4. This one will hold as many and even more than the other. 5. Our terms are lower than any firm in the town. 6. I dislike her as much as the rest.

III. Correct the double negatives in the following:

1. He never said a word to no one. 2. There wasn't hardly one that wasn't cracked. 3. He hasn't now, nor never had money enough. 4. They'll not come now, I don't suppose. 5. There isn't a girl in the room scarcely that I know.

IV. Point out any misplaced words, phrases, or clauses in the following:

1. I cautioned him not to do that repeatedly. 2. I never intend to go there again. 3. It is the candidate and not the platform that I object to. 4. I beg to respectfully call your attention to it. 5. He accepted the offer which they had made him with gratitude. 6. He was alike deficient in ability and scholarship. 7. I used to wish I could do that when I was a boy. 8. You will need to clearly define your terms. 9. It will not merely interest the children but also the parents. 10. The death is announced in this morning's papers of General B.

PARSING.

327. To save time, contractions of the ordinary grammatical terms may be used in writing out parsing and analysis, care being taken to keep to the same forms and order, and to see that the abbreviations are quite intelligible, and are properly marked. Parsing a word should always include classifying it, accounting for its form, if it is

inflected, and giving its syntactical relation. The following may serve as models :

Parse the italicized words in the following :

And she who taught *him* love not *less*

From him she loved *in* turn

• Caught in her sweet unconsciousness

What love is quick to learn.

him, pron. dem. masc. sing., ind. obj. of *taught*.

less, adv. of deg. comp. (*little, less, least*), mod. *caught*.

in, prep. gov. *turn*, and joining it to *caught*.

caught, verb, trans. new conj. irr. (*catch, caught*), ind. past, third sing. agr. with subj. *she*.

what, pron. indef. conj. obj. of *to learn*.

EXERCISE LIV.—REVIEW OF SYNTAX.

I. Fill the ellipsis correctly in each of the following :

(a). With *who* or *whom* :

(1). It wasn't the man — you said it was.

(2). — did he take her to be ?

(3). Did he tell you — he got it from ?

(4). — did he say had taken it ?

(5). That's the man — we thought owned it.

(b). With *he* or *him*, *she* or *her*, *I* or *me* :

(1). Let you and — choose sides.

(2). You were just as anxious to go as —.

(3). It may have been — that you saw.

(4). Persons like you and — don't need to care.

(5). You behaved worse than —.

(6). Between you and — that's a mistake.

(c). With *was* or *were*, *is* or *are* :

(1). Twenty cents a yard — too much for it.

(2). I wish it — not so late.

(3). Nobody but the doctor and the nurse — allowed to enter the room.

(4). Physies — not required for that examination.

(5). — more than one offer made for it ?

(6). That's one of the best answers that — given.

(7). If that — the case I'll punish him.

(8). — you one of the boys that — put back ?

(d). With *his*, *her* or *their* :

(1). One after another offered — services.

(2). More than one of the boys repented of — folly.

(3). Neither of the girls knew — lessons.

(4). Not one in the class can state — views clearly.

(5). She is one of the women that can earn — own living.

(6). Any person wishing one may have — choice of these.

{e}. With any suitable verb :

(1). I meant to — him this morning.

(2). It's nearly two years since I — from him.

(3). They did not seem to know that it — wrong to lie.

(4). How far did he say it — from here to Stratford?

(5). He has put them on the top shelf so that we — not be able to reach them.

II. Write sentences to exemplify the following :

(1). The noun *children* used as a predicate nominative, a nominative of address, a nominative absolute, and a nominative in apposition.

(2). An indirect object, a cognate object, a retained object, an objective complement, an adverbial objective.

(3). The pronoun *him* used as the subject of an infinitive and as a predicate objective.

(4). An attributive adjective, a predicate adjective, an appositive adjective, an adverbial predicate adjective.

III. Why cannot an intransitive verb have a passive voice ?

IV. Write sentences using the following verbs first as intransitive, then as transitive : *call, live, fly, move, talk.*

V. Write sentences using the verbs *appear, grow, remain*, first as verbs of incomplete predication, then as verbs of complete predication : as "She turned quite pale." "He turned and spoke to me."

VI. Show why each of the following sentences is ambiguous : And all the air a solemn stillness holds. She punishes him oftener than you. She sent her back for the shawl, which she had forgotten.

VII. Show in what different places in the following sentence *only* may be put, and what change it will make in the meaning in each case : My brother saw it twice.

VIII. Write sentences using the following correctly : "If that was the case," "more than one," "kind of," "who do you think," "and which," "as well as me," "but what," "than me."

IX. Parse the italicized words in the following :

1. *Where* did you come from, *sir*? 2. It rained *harder* than *before*. 3. Fill *in* the names *in* the vacant lines. 4. *What* we have is scarcely worth carrying home. 5. I spoke to *several* regarding their writing and spelling. 6. We all went *fishing* that morning. 7. *Those* behind can't see the blackboard. 8. It was *chiefly* on his account that we waited a little longer. 9. I felt like telling him *what* I had seen *some* of them doing. 10. He lost *all* that he had. 11. He lay perfectly still, *watching* it. 12. It has turned *out* a fine day. 13. He was *all* alone. 14. He doesn't go there *any* more. 15. *How* much do you want?

X. Correct any errors and give your reasons in each case :

1. How long is it since you have been at school? 2. He don't seem to care what I say. 3. There wasn't any of it left, I don't think. 4. Didn't it seem kind of strange at first? 5. If that was mine I'd take better care of it. 6. Was there more than one crack in it? 7. I meant to have shown it to the class. 8. He actually did not know where Winnipeg was. 9. Was you the boy that saw it fall? 10. I don't think that we will be able to finish it to-night. 11. Do either of you know who he got it from? 12. That place isn't marked on the map, I don't think. 13. He never has and he never will gain

anything by doing that. 14. Let everyone look after their own property. 15. There is no hope of him finding out who did it. 16. It is one of the best short stories that has been published. 17. Whom did you say had been appointed to take charge of it? 18. There is hardly one of them but what uses tobacco. 19. Thirty years experience of its effects have convinced me of that. 20. How will I know which of the two is the best?

ANALYSIS.

328. We shall now return to the subject of analysis, and carry our study of it a little further than we did in Part I.

With regard to simple sentences we note that,

I. The bare subject will be a noun or its equivalent: e.g.

1. A pronoun; as, *Those* on the desk belong to me. 2. An infinitive; as, *To err* is human, *to forgive* divine. 3. A gerund; as, *Picking berries* is warm work. 4. A phrase; as, *Under the daisies* is the title.

II. The modifiers of the bare subject will be adjectives or their equivalents; e.g.,

1. A possessive case; as, *John's father* was angry. 2. An appositive; as, *Smith, the baker*, owns it. 3. A phrase; as, *Chances to do that* often occur. *Samples of the flour* were shown. *Boys doing that* will be punished.

III. The bare predicate will be a simple finite verb, or a phrase equivalent to one; as,

He went home. *It has been taken* by some one. *That fact was lost sight of* by many. *He would have done it* if you had asked him.

IV. The subjective complement will be a predicate adjective or a predicate noun or pronoun (with or without modifiers), or a phrase equivalent to either of these; as.

The weather turned cold. *That was a great mistake.* *It must have been you.* *This pen is of no use.* *His object was to deceive us.*

Pupils must be careful not to confound a predicate nominative, which always denotes the same thing as the subject, with some of the different kinds of objects (275-80).

V The direct object will be a noun or its equivalent (with or without modifying words); e.g.

1. A pronoun; as, *I like those with the peak* best. 2. A gerund; as, *He began copying the names.* 3. A phrase; as, *They wanted to know the result.* *She sang In the Gloaming.*

VI. The adverbial modifiers will be adverbs or adverbial phrases, including indirect objects, adverbial objectives, and absolute phrases; as,

He made me an offer. *We waited a long time.* *They walked on, hand in hand.* *Such being the case, we need not wait.*

329. In a complex sentence a subordinate clause may occupy any of the six positions (except, of course, III.) with reference to the principal clause; as,

- I. *That such is the case* is evident.
- II. The proposal *which he made* is fair.
- IV. The fact was *that he had forgotten it*.
- V. We all know *that he does that*.
- VI. I will go *when I am ready*.

330. The foregoing scheme provides no place for (a) conjunctions connecting clauses, (b) phrases of address. When the latter occur they may simply be mentioned in a note appended to the analysis. Co-ordinating conjunctions, when connecting clauses, are not to be written with either clause. Subordinating conjunctions should be written with the clauses which they introduce.

331. Coming now to the different kinds of clauses, we note that **Noun** clauses may begin with conjunctions (*that, if, whether*), conjunctive adverbs (*where, when, why, how*), interrogative and indefinite conjunctive pronouns and pronominal adjectives (*who, which, what, whatever*). The conjunction *that* is very often omitted, especially in colloquial English.

332. A noun clause may be used in nearly all the different relations that a noun or pronoun can have to the rest of the sentence (298). Thus, it may be,

<i>Subj. Nom.</i>	<i>That I said so</i> is true.
<i>Nom. in App.</i>	The fact <i>that he was alone</i> seems strange.
<i>Pred. Nom.</i>	His proposal was <i>that I should go</i> .
<i>Nom. Abs.</i>	Granted <i>that he did say so</i> , what matters it?
<i>Obj. of Verb.</i>	He asked me <i>where you found it</i> .
<i>Obj. of Prep.</i>	I have no faith in <i>what he says</i> .
<i>Adv. Obj.</i>	I don't care <i>who did it</i> .
<i>Obj. in App.</i>	I know it to be a fact <i>that he did so</i> .
<i>Sub. of Inf.</i>	Do you believe <i>what you have read</i> to be true?
<i>Pred. Obj.</i>	I believe the truth to be <i>that he wrote it</i> .

333. Noun clauses in the adverbial objective are very common, and may occur after *verbs*, as in the example above; after *adjectives*; as,

I am afraid *that he will fail*. I am not sure *where he put it*.
and even after *nouns*; as,

You have no proof *that he took it*. I can bear witness *that he is honest*. I am in doubt *whether that is fair or not*.

334. Adjective clauses always begin with conjunctive pronouns, or with conjunctive adverbs which are equivalent to a conjunctive pronoun and a preposition (e. g., *where* = *in which*). The conjunctive pronoun is often omitted.

Adjective clauses may be attached to a noun or pronoun in any part of the sentence, and may even refer to a fact mentioned in a preceding clause; as,

He is often absent, *which looks suspicious*.

335. If we examine the subordinate clauses in the following groups:

(a). The boy who sits behind me broke it. She lost the pencil that I lent her. Show me the place where you found it.

(b) His mother, who was ill, heard of it. Berlin, where they live, is the county town.

(c). I told the clerk, who promised to do so. They came to the corner, where we parted.

(d). I pity you, who will have to bear the blame. He scolded the clerk, who was not to blame.

we see that while they are all, grammatically considered, adjective clauses attached to antecedents, the connection of the thought is different in the different groups.

In (a) the dependent clauses are added to restrict the application of the antecedent to one of a class. Such clauses are, therefore, called **Restrictive**.

In (b) the antecedents do not need to be restricted, and the clauses are evidently added by way of description or explanation. They may, therefore, be called **Descriptive** or **Explanatory**.

In (c) *who* and *where* are evidently equivalent to *and he*, *and there*, and the clauses are *logically*, that is in thought, **Co-ordinate**.

Lastly in (d) *who* is equivalent in turn to *since you* and *though he*, and the clauses are *logically adverbial*.

336. Observe that *his*, *her*, *their* and even *my* and *thy*, which are commonly classed as pronominal adjectives, are sometimes used as true pronouns with adjective clauses modifying them; as,

Their sorrows shall be multiplied that hasten after other gods. My shame is greater who remain. It was your fault who left the gate open

337. Adverbial clauses are of at least nine kinds, and are usually introduced by subordinate conjunctions or conjunctive adverbs :

Time, (as, when, while, since, until, till, before, ere, after).

Place, (where, wherever).

Cause, (as, since, because, that = for that).

Condition, (if, unless).

Concession, (though, although, however, whoever, whatever).

Purpose, (that, lest).

Consequence, (that).

Manner, (as)

Comparison, (as, than).

338. Observe that,

(a). The *if* of conditional clauses is often omitted with *were, had, should, etc.*, as,

Were it possible I would do so. Had I known that I would have let you go. Should it happen again let me know.

(b). The *though* of concessive clauses is not expressed in cases like the following :

Give something, be it ever so little. (Though we) Do what we like we can't stop it.

(c). The *that* of consequence clauses may be omitted; as,
It was so heavy (that) none of us could lift it.

(d). In comparative clauses like the following the adverb *the* has a conjunctive force,

The higher we go the colder it gets.

339. The chief difficulties in analysis arise from the ellipses and the inverted order of words. In attempting to analyze a passage, therefore, it is well to keep the following cautions in mind :

(1). As every clause must contain a finite verb there will be as many clauses in a passage as there are finite verbs expressed or necessarily understood.

(2). There is often an ellipsis after conjunctions and conjunctive adverbs, especially after *and, as, than, though, when, but*.

(3). Whatever words are supplied must give the proper sense, fit in with the others, and not take the place of any of them.

(4). Co-ordinating conjunctions must connect similar parts of the sentence.

(5). It is better to think out the meaning and construction of the whole passage before writing down any of the analysis or parsing.

340. Clauses and phrases, with their classification and relation, may be written out as follows :

I. Divide the following sentence into clauses write out each in full and give its relation :

That he may have been aware of these facts is, of course, quite possible, but at present there is no evidence that such was the case.

(1). *Clause*: That he may have been aware of these facts.

Kind and Relation: Sub. noun, nom. subj. of *is*.

(2). *Cl.*: (That he may have been aware of these facts) is of course quite possible.

K. and R.: Princ. ass.

(3). *Cl.*: At present there is no evidence.

K. and R.: Princ. ass. co-ord. advers. to (2).

(4). *Cl.*: That such was the case.

K. and R.: Sub. noun, adv. obj. after *evidence*.

II. (a). Write out in full the clauses to which the italicized words in the following belong, classify each clause and give its relation.

(b). Classify the phrases "by wealth or dignity," "by nature," "having learnt the manners and the arts," according to their grammatical value, and give the relation of each.

Blest he, though undistinguished from the crowd
By wealth or dignity, who dwells secure,
Where man, by nature fierce, has laid aside
His fierceness, having learnt, *though* slow to learn,
The manners and the arts of civil life.

(a). (1). *Clause*: Blest (is) he.

Kind and Relation: Princ. ass.

(2). *Cl.*: Where man, by nature fierce, has laid aside his fierceness, having learnt the manners and the arts of civil life.

K. and R.: Sub. adv. of place mod. *dwells*.

(3). *Cl.*: Though (he has been) slow to learn.

K. and R.: Sub. adv. of concess. mod. *having learnt*

(b). (1). *Phrase*: By wealth or dignity.

K. and R.: Adv. mod. *undistinguished*.

(2). *Ph.*: By nature.

K. and R.: Adj. mod. *fierce*.

(3). *Ph.*: Having learnt the manners and the arts

K. and R.: Adj. mod. *man*.

EXERCISE LV. REVIEW OF ANALYSIS.

(1). What parts do I., II., III., IV., V., VI., represent respectively in the analysis of simple sentences?

(2). Show by examples which of these may consist of a preposition phrase.

(3). Show by examples how many of them may consist of an infinitive phrase.

(4). Write a series of simple sentences consisting respectively of I and III.; I., II. and III.; I., III. and IV.; I., II., III. and IV.; I., III. and V.; I., II., III. and V.; I., III. and VI.; I., III., IV. and VI.; I., III., V. and VI.; I., II., III., IV. and VI.; I., II., III., V. and VI.

(5). Write a series of complex sentences consisting of the following clauses :

(a) Principal and noun ; (b) principal and adjective ; (c) principal and adverbial ; (d) principal, noun and adjective ; (e) principal, noun and adverb ; (f) principal, adjective and adverb ; (g) principal, noun, adjective and adverb.

(6). Write four compound sentences of two clauses each, illustrating the different kinds of co-ordination.

(7). Write a sentence consisting of two principal clauses, each with a dependent clause attached to it.

(8). Write four complex sentences containing noun clauses beginning with *who*, *how*, *when*, *whether*.

(9). Write four complex sentences containing adverbial clauses of purpose, consequence, concession and comparison.

(10). Write three complex sentences to show that *where* may introduce a noun clause, an adjective clause, or an adverb clause.

(11). Write four complex sentences to show that *as* may introduce adverbial clauses of time, cause, manner, comparison.

(12). Write two complex sentences to show that *as* and *why* may introduce adjective clauses.

(13). Write four complex sentences to show that a noun clause may be in the predicate nominative, nominative in apposition, objective after a preposition, adverbial objective.

(14). Write three complex sentences to show that the clause "that all may see" may have the value of a noun, an adjective, an adverb.

(15). Classify the subordinate clause in each of the following and give its relation :

- (a). I was afraid that he had forgotten it.
- (b). What is the reason that you did not go?
- (c). It is a pity that you did not tell her that.
- (d). That you may have no excuse I will read it again.
- (e). It rained so hard that we could not go.
- (f). You had the same chance as we had.
- (g). What he meant by it none of us knew.
- (h). It was a great mistake, whoever did it.

(16). Write out in full all the subordinate clauses in the following, classify each and give its relation :

- (a). It will cost you a dollar, if not more.
- (b). It is warmer to-day than yesterday.
- (c). He never thinks of it when at work.
- (d). It is difficult, though not impossible, to do so.
- (e). I got the same answer as before.
- (f). He spoke as if he intended to do so.
- (g). They left the very day we came.
- (h). No wonder you could not open it

(17). Analyze the following simple sentences and parse the italicized words:

(a). *Far* in the distance, *half hidden* from the view *by* the intervening woods, was the little village, with its spires *glistening* in the sunlight

(b). How *astonished* the rest of them must have felt next *morning* to see him in his usual place!

(c). *There*, hidden voices all night long
Keep *up*, the sedgy creeks *among*,
The murmurs of their summer song.

(d). And *from* the wall a little *span*,
And *by* the trodden line,
Stands, *seen* from many a distant plain,
A tall and slender shrine.

(18). Write out in full the clauses to which the italicized words belong, classify each and give its relation:

(a). See how he lifts the bell and shakes it slowly at first, *then* with a hurried motion, till the clapper seems to strike both sides at once, and the *sounds* are scattered forth in quick succession.

(b). Such an incident *as* the one I *have related* would be considered improbable if *met with* in a novel, but there are frequently in real life occurrences which, like this one, are stranger than *fiction*.

(c). There was stillness *as* of deep, dead night,
And a pause, but *not* of fear,
While the Switzers gazed on the gathering might
Of the hostile shield and spear.

(d). Thy grasp is welcome *as* the hand
Of brother in a foreign land;
Thy summons *welcome as* the cry
That told the Indian isles *were* nigh
To the world-seeking Genoese.

ADDITIONAL PASSAGES FOR ANALYSIS AND PARSING.

(1). Here and there a peak, towering above the rest of the range stood out against the sky in solitary splendor.

(2). Facing this fountain stands the village church, flanked on one side by the pastor's residence and on the other by that of the chief magistrate.

(3). Sometimes, on sunny days in the autumn, great flocks of them may be seen high above the forest, seeming to float without effort like clouds.

(4). Above all, this state of affairs is largely due to the refusal of our best business men to take part in municipal government.

(5.) Bearing before them in their course
The relics of the archer force,
Like wave with crest of sparkling foam,
Right onward did clan Alpine come.

(6). I have no doubt that it would be so, were it not that in China, as elsewhere, there are many that would not believe even if some should rise from *the dead*.

(7). It is a matter of great regret that he has died without leaving in a permanent form, as he was often urged to do, his rich store of anecdotes regarding people he had known.

(8). I feel sure that had he been able to write down even the half of what he remembered, the book would have been a notable one, for his memory was accurate and his reminiscences most graphic and interesting.

(9). As he floated down the stream he spent his time, when not watching the wild fowl, in studying his map, which was so detailed that he could tell just where he was at every bend of the river, and knew the name of every village long before he came to it.

(10). But when a man who has had no previous experience in fruit-growing comes here, buys land with borrowed capital, and plants it without discrimination, is it any wonder that his experiment proves a failure?

(11). So well aware do these birds seem to be that they are under the protection of the law, that, although they are usually rather shy and retiring in their habits, it seems here as if they actually preferred to nest near houses.

(12). Hitherto they had been afraid to fish by torchlight lest the Indians on the mainland seeing the light should come across and attack them, but now that they had these lines they would be able to fish at night without fear of being discovered.

(13). After safely stowing his canoe behind some dense bushes he ran back to the water, and, having on nothing but a flannel shirt and a pair of bicycling breeches, he struck out into the lake and swam as hard as he could to a point half a mile below where he had hidden the canoe.

(14). Thus on and on he blithely speeds
Through briery brake and tangled reeds,
Thinking of Robin and his bowmen,
And all the archer's daring deeds,
Till 'neath a slope by vines o'ergrown,
Where, in the ages that have flown,
The redmen slew their swarthy foemen,
He stands beside a pool alone.

(15). And he saw that youth,
Piteous and lovely, lying on the sand,
Like some rich hyacinth which by the scythe
Of an unskilful gardener has been cut,
Mowing the garden grassplots near its bed,
And lies a fragrant tower of purple bloom,
On the mown, dying grass.

(16). A dimmer ray
Touches thy surface from the silent room
In which they tend the sick or gather round
The dying; and a slender, steady beam
Comes from the little chamber in the roof,
Where with a feverish crimson on her cheek,
The solitary damsel, dying, too,
Plies the quick needle till the stars grow pale.

PART IV.

SOUNDS AND LETTERS.

341. So far we have been dealing with words as parts of sentences, and what we have said has referred mainly to written or printed words. These, however, are only representations to the eye, by means of characters called letters, of the words which we utter in speaking. We shall now very briefly consider the sounds of which these spoken words are composed, and see how they are produced, represented and combined.

342. We know that breathing consists in drawing air into the lungs and forcing it out again through the nose and mouth.

Now there are two elastic ligaments stretched across the inside of the larynx or upper part of the wind pipe. When we are simply breathing these are loose and kept apart, so that the air passes freely through. When, however, we wish to speak they are drawn together and become tense, and being made to vibrate by the air passing out between them sounds are produced.

343. These sounds form our voices, and hence the ligaments we spoke of are called the vocal chords. It is found, too, that these sounds are more or less affected in their passage by the palate, tongue, teeth, lips and nose, and hence these, with the larynx, are called the **vocal organs**, or organs of speech.

344. These sounds are divided into two classes. If they pass out freely without friction or stoppage they are called **vowel** sounds, and the letters that represent them are called vowels. If they are hindered in their passage or stopped by any of the vocal organs, they are called **consonant** sounds, and the letters representing them are known as consonants. Thus, if we utter the word *rat* we find that there are three sounds combined in it, represented by the vowel *a* and the consonants *v* and *t*.

345. The collection of all the letters used in a language is called its **alphabet**, and as letters are used to represent sounds it is evident that in a perfect alphabet there would be a letter and only one for each elementary sound. Our English alphabet is, therefore, very imperfect. It is *deficient*, for it has only twenty-six letters to represent more than forty distinct sounds. It is *redundant*, for three of the twenty-six (*c*, *q*, and *x*) represent sounds that can be expressed by other letters. It is *inconsistent*, for (1) the same sound is represented in different ways, (2) the same letter or combination of letters represents different sounds, (3) letters are sometimes silent.

To these imperfections are mainly due the irregularities and consequent difficulty of English pronunciation and spelling.

346. The twenty-six letters are commonly classed as five vowels, *a, e, i, o, u*, and twenty-one consonants, *b, c, d, f, g, h, j, k, l, m, n, p, q, r, s, t, v, w, x, y, z*, but *w* and *y* are consonants only when they begin a syllable, as in *we, yes*; otherwise they are vowels as in *law, by*.

347. Consonants are sometimes classed according to the vocal organ that has most to do with producing the special sound. Thus we have *labials*, or lip letters, as *p, b*; *linguals*, or tongue letters, as *t, d*. So, too, we speak of *guttural*, or throat sounds, and *nasal* sounds, which being stopped by the lips are allowed to find their way through the nose.

348. Two consonant sounds are sometimes combined in one, as in the case of the sound we give to *th, sh*. So, too, the sound of one vowel sometimes glides into that of another, forming what is called a **diphthong**, as in the case of *oi* in *boil*.

349. A sound produced by a single effort or impulse of the voice and forming a word or a part of a word is called a **syllable**. A syllable may be represented by one or more letters, but must contain at least one vowel; as,

a, I, man, chalk, strength, man-i-fest-ly.

A word of one syllable is called a **monosyllable**, one of two a **disyllable**; of three a **trisyllable**; of more than three a **polysyllable**.

PUNCTUATION.

350. Punctuation marks are used to enable the reader to grasp the meaning of a passage more readily than he otherwise would. They are :

The Period .	The Comma ,	The dash —	
The Colon :	The Interrogation Point ?	Parenthesis ()	
The Semicolon ;	The Exclamation Point !	Quotation Marks “ ”	

351. The proper use of these and of capital letters is best taught by calling attention to good models, and by requiring every written exercise to be punctuated, and to have capitals where necessary.

The following rules will, however, be found useful for reference.

(1). The Period is used :

- (1). At the end of every sentence which is not a question or an exclamation.
- (2). After abbreviations, headings, Roman and Arabic numerals used in numbering, and before decimals.

(2). The Colon is used :

- (1). Before a direct quotation, unless it is very short, and before a list of particulars, or an explanatory sub-heading.
- (2). Between independent and loosely connected statements in a sentence.

(3). The Semicolon is used :

- (1). Between the different divisions of a list when the items of each division are separated by commas.

- (2). Before *as, e.g., i.e., viz.*, followed by a list of examples
- (3). Between independent clauses of some length and somewhat closely connected in thought.
- (4). The comma is used :

- (1). To separate from the rest of the sentence : (a). Absolute phrases, appositive phrases, and nominatives of address, (b). Adjective clauses, when they are not restrictive, and *for* clauses. (c). Words and phrases like *too, moreover, namely, in fact, as it were, so to speak*, used parenthetically. (d). Any phrase or clause that seems to interrupt the main thought.

- (2). When a number of words or pairs of words or phrases of the same kind, and having the same relation come after one another, each is followed by a comma ; as,

The reading, spelling, and writing were satisfactory. Old and young, rich and poor, all were welcome.

- (3). When the subject is very long, or when it ends with a verb it is separated from the predicate by a comma ; as,

Whatever is, is right.

- (4). Before short, direct quotations.

- (5). To mark an ellipsis ; as,

The one was English and the other, French.

- (5). The Interrogation Point is used after every direct question, whether it ends a sentence or not.

- (6). The Exclamation Point is used after interjections (except *O*) and phrases or sentences of an exclamatory nature.

- (7). The Dash is used :

- (1). To mark an unexpected break in the thought or change in the construction.

- (2). Instead of parentheses. This use should be resorted to sparingly.

- (8). Parentheses are used to enclose an explanation, a definition, translation, reference, or other matter not strictly belonging to the sentence.

- (9). Quotation Marks are used :

- (1). To enclose every direct quotation.

- (2). To enclose the name of a book, paper, essay, or a word or phrase to which we wish to call special attention. Such names, words, or phrases are sometimes printed in italics instead of being enclosed in quotation marks. The punctuation mark at the end of a sentence should precede, not follow, the quotation marks.

OTHER MARKS USED IN WRITING AND PRINTING.

(10). The **Hyphen** [-], used to connect the parts of a compound word, also the parts of a word when divided between two lines. Such division should be avoided, however, as far as possible, and on no account should a word of one syllable be so divided.

(11). The **Caret** [^] is used to show that something has been accidentally omitted.

(12). The **Apostrophe** ['], in addition to being used as a sign of the possessive case, and of the plural number when speaking of letters, figures, and signs, is also used to mark the intentional omission of letters ; as, *e'er*, *don't*, *we've*.

CAPITAL LETTERS.

352. A capital letter should be used to begin :

- (1). Every sentence, every line of poetry, and every direct quotation.
- (2). Every proper noun and proper adjective, including names of things personified, titles of office or honor, and all special designations of persons, places, or things.
- (3). Pronouns referring to the Deity ; as,

My times are in Thy hand. For by His hand He leadeth me.

- (4). The first word and all the nouns and other important words in the title of a book or essay.

The pronoun *I* and the interjection *O* should always be written as capitals.

CORRESPONDENCE.

353. As nearly every person has occasion at times to correspond with others, and as young people's prospects in life are often materially affected by the impression which their letters make on those who read them, it is very desirable that all pupils should learn how to write and address letters properly.

354. Letters may be divided for convenience into **Business** letters and **Familiar** letters, but while we shall speak mainly with reference to the former, most of what we have to say applies equally to both. Thus, all letters should be written legibly and neatly, in ink, and should be free from blots, erasures, and corrections, and be correct in grammar, spelling, and punctuation. Again, all letters should be dated, and should contain the name and address of the writer.

In Business letters it is better to use plain white paper, and to write on only one side of the page. If you are writing about your own affairs and require an answer, enclose a stamp.

355. The essential parts of a Business letter are six, and may be described as :

(1). The Heading. (2). The Address. (3). The Salutation. (4). The Body of the Letter. (5). The Complimentary Close. (6). The Signature.

Their relative position on the page may be represented as follows :

(1). [HEADING.]

(2). [ADDRESS.]

(3). [SALUTATION.]

Read your kind letter
and was so glad to hear
all the news.

(4). [BODY OF LETTER.]

(5). [COMPLIMENTARY CLOSE.]

(6). [SIGNATURE.]

356. With regard to these parts the following points should be carefully noted :

(1). The **Heading** should show clearly where and when the letter was written, and should contain the writer's address (including the province, except in the case of well known places,) the month, day of the month, and year. It may be put in one line, but it is usually better to make two. The following may serve as examples :

- | | |
|--|--|
| (a). Blyth, Ont., May 10th, 1899. | (b). Seaforth, Ont.,
February 7, 1899. |
| (c). 225 Yonge St.,
Toronto, June 21, 1899. | (d). P.O. Box 519,
Hamilton, Oct. 12, 1898. |

(2). The **Address** should give the name of the person to whom you are writing and his P.O. address, as in the following :

- | | |
|--|---|
| (a). John C. Wilson, Esq.,
Meaford, Ont. | (b). The Deputy Minister,
Educ. Dept., Toronto. |
| (c). Miss Jessie Denton,
49 Brock St., Brantford. | (d). Hinds & Noble,
Cooper Institute, New York City. |

In official and friendly letters the address is often placed below the **Body** of the letter at the left side.

(3). The **Salutation** will depend on the person addressed and the degree of intimacy. The most formal salutations are "Sir," and "Madam," More familiar forms are "Dear Sir," "My dear Madam," "Dear Dr. Taylor." "My dear Miss Preston," In the case of firms the form is, of course, "Gentlemen," It is customary to place a colon or a comma and a dash after the salutation ; as, *Dear Sir* :— although a comma would be more suitable.

(4). The **Body** of the letter contains what the writer wishes to say, and in the case of business letters should be clear in meaning, explicit in its statements and directions, and free from irrelevant matters. Thus, in ordering goods be careful to specify clearly the kind, amount, cost, etc., and how they are to be sent; and if you enclose money or acknowledge the receipt of it, mention the amount. In applying for a situation mention your age, qualifications, experience, and enclose *copies* of any testimonials you have, or mention any persons you are at liberty to refer to.

(5). The **Complimentary Close**, like the salutation, depends on the position of the persons concerned and the degree of intimacy. In official and formal letters it consists usually of two lines ; as,

- | | |
|---|--|
| (a). I have the honor to be, Sir,
Your obedient servant, | (b). I am, Gentlemen,
Yours respectfully, |
|---|--|

In ordinary business letters it is usually shortened to one ; as,

- | | |
|------------------------|-------------------|
| (c). Very truly yours, | (d). Yours truly, |
|------------------------|-------------------|

(6). The **Signature** should be written quite legibly, and should, especially in writing to strangers, show the sex of the writer, and in the case of a woman, whether married or single; as,

(a). (Miss) Mary Wilson. (b). Annie E. Brown,
(Address, Mrs. W. H. Brown).

(c). John C. Martin. (d). Smith, Brown & Co.,
per H. E. C.

357. Having written the letter the next thing, after reading it carefully, is to fold it. With regard to this we shall give only the following general directions: (1). Fold to suit the envelope. (2). Fold the front page in. (3). Make as few folds as possible, and avoid narrow ones.

358. The **Superscription** or **Direction** on the envelope should be plainly written, and be full enough to make sure that the letter shall reach the right person. It may be put in three lines but in most cases it takes four, one of which is sometimes put at the left hand lower corner. The following will serve as examples:

(a). Alex. R. Watson, Esq., (b). Mr. Edward Boyd.
Barrister, etc., The Bell Piano Co.,
Paris, Ont. Guelph,
Ont.

(c). Miss Laura F. Brown,
Berlin,
P.O. Box 79. Ont.

In addressing an envelope care should be taken to have the flap on the upper side. The stamp should always be put at the upper right hand corner.

R. S. HENDERSON & Co., 351 RICHMOND STREET, TORONTO, ONT.	STAMP.
---	--

359. With reference to Familiar letters the only points of difference to be noted are :

1. The address is often omitted, especially in writing to regular correspondents or intimate friends.

2. The salutation and the close will vary according to the intimacy, or to the relationship. Thus, we shall have such forms of salutation as, "Dear Friend," "Dear Helen," "My Dear Uncle," and of closing as, "Yours sincerely," "Your loving friend," "Your affectionate nephew," "Ever yours."

3. The body of the letter will, of course, be less formal, and will deal with a variety of subjects. Greater freedom of expression is allowed, and generally speaking, the more natural and conversational the language is the more the letter is appreciated.

360. Formal Notes of Invitation, etc., and the answers to them are in the third person, and have not the usual parts of a letter. The residence and the date are placed at the left, below the body of the note. The following will serve as examples.

Mr. and Mrs. C. W. Elliott request the pleasure of Mr. William Irving's company at dinner on Thursday evening, April 6, at 7 o'clock.

74 Bedford Ave., April 3.

Mr. William Irving accepts with pleasure Mr. and Mrs. Elliott's invitation to dinner at 7 o'clock, Thursday, April 6.

251 Nelson St., April 4.

or Mr. William Irving regrets that a previous engagement prevents him from accepting Mr. and Mrs. Elliott's kind invitation for Thursday evening.

EXERCISE LVI.

I. Write business letters suitable for the following purposes :

1. Enclosing an account and asking that it be paid as soon as possible. 2. Acknowledging the receipt of money and enclosing a formal receipt. 3. Enclosing money as a subscription for some newspaper. 4. Enclosing money, and asking that certain goods be sent. 5. To a newspaper, enclosing an advertisement to be inserted. 6. Asking for information in regard to some matter. 7. Applying for a position. 8. Acknowledging the receipt of instructions in regard to some matter and promising to attend to them. 9. Notifying some one of a meeting which he is expected to attend. 10. Inviting some one to attend a school entertainment or picnic. 11. Acknowledging an invitation, and promising to attend if possible. 12. Acknowledging an invitation, and expressing regret at being unable to attend.

II. Write friendly letters to suit the following cases :

1. To an absent brother or sister, giving home news. 2. Home from your uncle's or grandfather's, where you are visiting. 3. To a former schoolmate, telling how you like the situation you are in. 4. To some friend, giving an account of some match in which you played or which you witnessed. 5. Thanking some one for some gift, or for some kindness shown you. 6. Inviting some one to come and spend part of the holidays with you and holding out inducements.

III. Write telegrams of not more than ten words each, if possible, to suit the following :

1. Asking some one to meet you at a certain place and time. 2. To a brother or sister, to come home at once, and assigning some reason. 3. Saying you are unable to keep some appointment, and giving the reason. 4. Notifying some one of the death of a relative, and telling the day and the hour of the funeral. 5. Ordering some goods wanted at once.

IV. Write 'advertisements to send to a newspaper, suitable for the following headings :

1. House to Let. 2. Farm or House for Sale. 3. Lost. 4. Found. 5. Wanted.

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it shut the book and never read
it.

Florence McCurdy
Queen Victoria
School,
Belleville,
Ont.,

Room No. 7

